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BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

THE NEXT MEETING will be held at CAMBRIDGE, commencing on WEDNESDAY, October 1, 1862, under the Presidency of
The Rev. R. WILLIS, M.A. F.R.S.,
Jacksonian Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge.

The Reception Room will be at the Town Hall. Notices of Communications intended to be read to the Association, accompanied by a statement whether or not the Author will be present at the Meeting, may be addressed to John Phillips, M.A. LL.D. F.R.S., Assistant General Secretary, University Museum, Oxford; or to Prof. Babington, M.A. F.R.S., Prof. Living, M.A., and the Rev. N.M. Ferrers, M.A., Local Secretaries, Cambridge.

WILLIAM SPOTTISWOODE, M.A. F.R.S.,
General Treasurer,
19, Chancery-lane, Belgrave-square, London.

BRITISH MUSEUM.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM will be CLOSED from MONDAY, the 1st, till THURSDAY, the 6th, of September, inclusive, and no Person can possibly be admitted during that Week. The Museum will be RE-OPENED on MONDAY, the 8th of September; and Visitors will be admitted to view the Collections on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, from 10 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the evening, from that date to the end of October. From the 1st of November to the end of the year, the Museum will be open to the Public, from 10 to 4 o'clock, on the days mentioned above.

A. PANIZZI, Principal Librarian.
British Museum, August 20th, 1862.

UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.— INDIA CLASS.

ARTHUR HOUSTON, A.M. of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law, Whately Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin, LECTURES on SELECTED CANDIDATES in the Jurisprudence and Political Economy prescribed for the Further Examination.

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Further particulars on application.
Trinity College, Dublin, August, 1862.

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LECTURES.

Medicine—Dr. Black and Dr. Kirkes.
Surgery—Mr. Lawrence and Mr. Cook.
Descriptive Anatomy—Mr. Sker and Mr. Holden.
Physiology and General Anatomy—Mr. Savory.
Chemistry—Dr. Frankland.
Demonstrations of Anatomy—Mr. Callender and Mr. Smith.
Demonstrator of Morbid Anatomy—Dr. Andrew.

SUMMER SESSION, commencing MAY 1, 1863.

Materia Medica—Dr. Farre.
Botany—Dr. Harris.
Forensic Medicine—Dr. Martin.
Midwifery—Dr. Greenhalgh.
Comparative Anatomy—Mr. Callender.
Practical Chemistry—Dr. Frankland.
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Bank of England, 16th August, 1862.

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"In this volume Mr. Wilson has added to his acknowledged claims as one of the best poets of the day. It is refreshing to come upon such pages as 'Gathered Together' contains. In some of the pieces the writer rises to a Remondian altitude in his power of description."

The Observer.

"A fine and lofty spirit pervades these pieces, one and all: but those which deal with 1848 rise into political eloquence of the highest order. The 'Sonnets' are very eloquent specimens of what may be done with the English tongue in this peculiar structure of verse. They are animated by noble sentiments, expressed in sonorous language, and are in every respect worthy of praise."

The Bookseller.

"We must admit that he exhibits considerable skill in the art of versification, great command of language, and a highly cultivated mind. We are glad to find this pleasing volume has reached a second edition, a success which has rarely occurred to any new poet, unless his productions are considerably above the ordinary standard."

The Court Journal.

"It is refreshing to find one work among a thousand in which originality is at least attempted, and interest embodied—such is this book. He aims at originality in his thoughts and in his diction, and he may safely say he has succeeded. He has 'gathered together' a collection of the highest merit."

The Morning Post.

"The author of 'Gathered Together' is already favourably known in the literary world. The present volume will not detract from his previous reputation."

The Morning Chronicle.

"Some of the poems display considerable merit."

The Morning Advertiser.

"When the first edition of this volume appeared, we gave it well-merited praise; and the result of a second perusal has been to increase instead of diminishing the approval with which we send it its pages. It displays a happy combination of intellectual culture and poetic appreciation."

The Daily Telegraph.

"Mr. Wilson is a poet with great freshness of feeling, and a considerable elegance of style. On reading for the first time the selections which he has published, we felt convinced that he possesses greater power than he has yet set forth. This opinion was confirmed on a second perusal. His thoughts are fervid, and even passionate; his imagery is natural and familiar; he is never at a loss for appropriate language, and he understands the principles of versification. Each feeling is gracefully expressed, and the harmony of the lines faultless. In his 'Sonnets' he exhibits great taste."

The Era.

"Mr. Wilson is unquestionably possessed of high poetic feeling, and a free and fearless mode of thought, and he moulds his fancies into elegant verse. In the collection before us we recognize some old friends and favourites. 'The Release,' 'My Favorite Tree,' and 'Nevermore,' are very charming. Our poet is a deep lover of freedom."

The Morning Star.

"This author possesses some of the finest attributes of the true poet. And a true poet Mr. Wilson undoubtedly is, and true poetry is much of that which he has here 'gathered together.' Some of the pieces, indeed, might be owned by the best writers of the present day. Collectors of beautiful thoughts, happily expressed, will find in this volume a fruitful store."

The Illustrated London News.

"Many of his songs strike us as being well adapted for music, by which we mean no little praise."

John Bull.

"Mr. William Wilson is the author of several books. Many a graceful fancy and earnest thought is scattered throughout."

The Weekly Dispatch.

"This is not the first clever production of this Author we have had occasion to praise, and we are enabled, very conscientiously, to endorse our past commendations. The excellence of this writer is perhaps to be found most fully developed in the characteristics 'Sonnets.'"

Lloyd's Weekly Newspaper.

"There is not one line that reminds us of oft-repeated cadences. He is excellent in description. He touches the Sonnet with ease and felicity. In his patriotic songs observations occur which appear almost prophetic."

The Illustrated News of the World.

"William Wilson is very favourably known as a writer of both poetry and prose, and 'Gathered Together' will add to his reputation."

London: LONGMAN, GREEN & CO.

LONDON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 23, 1862.

LITERATURE

The Autobiography of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, recently discovered in the Portuguese Language by Baron Kervyn de Lettenhove. The English Translation by Leonard Francis Simpson. (Longman & Co.)

MORE than ten years have elapsed since Mr. Stirling gave to the world his 'Cloister Life of Charles the Fifth.' Previous to that time we, in England, at least, had been content to accept the graceful narrative of Robertson as our main historical guide in matters relating to the life of the most illustrious monarch and statesman of the sixteenth century. Founded, however, as that narrative was, to a great extent, on the facts stated by one of the most unvarnished of historians, Bernardo Leti, it yielded to the superior authority of the precious contents of the Archives of Simancas, which Mr. Stirling had the honour of first bringing before the notice of the literary public of England. A flood of light was suddenly thrown on the most imperfect part of Robertson's work, and the clouds and mysteries which had hitherto surrounded the life of the Emperor at Yuste were for ever dispelled. The works of M. Mignet and of M. Amédée Pichot, which followed at no great interval Mr. Stirling's volume, still further assisted us in forming a true conception of the Emperor's life and position after his abdication. Meanwhile M. Gachard, to whom the historical literature of the sixteenth century owes an incalculable debt of gratitude, had drawn the attention of the Royal Academy of Brussels, in a memoir presented to that body, in 1845, to the subject of the supposed Memoirs of Charles the Fifth written by himself, of which, for more than two centuries, no traces had been discovered. That such a work had at one time existed, not even the most sceptical of critics could well doubt. William Van Male, Charles's secretary and constant companion during the latter years of his reign, gives the following account of the composition of the Memoirs in a letter written at Augsburg, on July 17, 1550, and addressed to Seigneur Præet, grand bailli of Bruges:—"In the leisure of his navigation on the Rhine, the Emperor, having plenty of time on board ship, undertook to write his journeys and expeditions from the year 1515 up to the present moment. The work is admirably polished and elegant, and the style attests great strength of mind and eloquence. Surely I should not easily have imagined that the Emperor possessed such qualifications, as he has avowed to me himself that he was indebted for nothing to education, and that he had acquired them entirely by his own meditations and labour. As regards the weight and value of the work, they consist especially in that fidelity and that gravity to which history owes its credit and its power." In a postscript, Van Male adds, that the Emperor had promised to allow him to translate the work as soon as it had been revised by Granvelle and by his son, and then goes on to make this most important observation: "The Emperor is unjust to us and our century when he wishes his work to remain secret and protected by a hundred keys." There is, moreover, the direct testimony of Charles himself to the fact that he had prepared an account of the chief exploits of his reign. Prudencio de Sandoval, Bishop of Pamplona, tells us that in an interview which the Emperor had at Yuste with Father Francis de Borgia, he put this question to him: "Do you think that there is

any sign of vanity in writing one's own acts? You must know that I have related all the expeditions that I have undertaken, with the causes and motives which urged me to them; but I have not been actuated in writing by any desire of glory or any idea of vanity."

Girolamo Ruscelli, in a letter addressed to Philip the Second in 1561 (included in his 'Lettere di Principi'), Louis Dolce and Ambrosio de Morales, historiographer to the King of Spain, all bear witness to the fact that Charles had written an autobiography—and written it, too, not in the peaceful seclusion of Estremadura, but amidst the fiercest of his wars. So late as the year 1623, the existence of the Memoirs is again asserted by Gilles Gonzalez d'Avila, historiographer to Philip the Third; and it is probable, from what we now know, that he may have seen the original manuscript at Madrid. Such is the last trace afforded us by history of the work of the Imperial author; and in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, M. Gachard among the number, it appears to have been considered as irretrievably lost as the second Decade of Livy. M. Kervyn de Lettenhove, however, has had the good fortune unexpectedly to come upon the treasure for which so many learned men had industriously but unsuccessfully sought. Whilst pursuing some historical researches in the Imperial Library at Paris, this gentleman discovered a manuscript in the Portuguese language bearing the following title: 'The History of the most Invincible Emperor, Charles V., King of Spain, composed by His Imperial Majesty, as is shown by the paper on the following page, translated from the French, and from the original at Madrid, in 1620.' It is to a translation of this manuscript that our attention is now directed. Are there any reasons to doubt its authenticity? M. de Lettenhove, in his elaborate preface, argues the question as follows:—

"Thus in 1620, in the reign of Philip the Third, and under the ministry of the Duke d'Uzeda, the original manuscript of the Commentaries still existed at Madrid; what has become of it since? Did some prejudice of national honour cause it to be destroyed when the grandson of a king of France came to occupy the throne of Charles the Fifth? Has it been the football, at the commencement of the present century, of some of those soldiers who little thought they were avenging the vanquished of Pavia when they made their weapons clang in the caverns of the Escorial, where reposes the rival of Francis the First? Or is it, on the contrary, preserved amongst a lot of secret archives? Spain, we hope, will deem these doubts worthy of solution. However, the weakness and the decay of the monarchy under Philip the Third may explain, at the same time, how the public mind looked back with a feeling of sorrow and regret toward the reign of Charles the Fifth, and how the documents which remained hidden from the Sandovals and Sepulvedas were allowed to be seen by the Coronists, their successors.—The translation into Portuguese is easily explained. Portugal was still united to Spain; and it was about the same period that Francis d'Andrada and Antonio de Souza wrote in Portuguese the 'Life of King John the Third,' so intimately connected with that of Charles the Fifth."

The Autobiography is preceded by a letter addressed by the Emperor to his son Philip, and dated Innsbruck, 1552, in which he states that the manuscript is his own composition, and that he forwards it to him for safe custody. It would appear, therefore, that the work now before us is identical with the Memoirs mentioned by Van Male as having been composed on the Rhine in 1550; and the manuscript was most probably sent to Philip immediately before the disastrous flight from Innsbruck, to

save it from falling into the hands of the Protestant Princes. The style of the Memoirs is just what we might have expected from Van Male's description. There is an utter absence of everything like rhetorical flourish: the narrative is clear and flowing, but tinged throughout with a lofty gravity, befitting the subject and the author.

Admitting, then, the authenticity of the volume, which we can see no sufficient reason to deny, the important question presents itself, What is its value in an historical point of view? That our opinions on this subject may be rightly understood, we must state that the first part of the work consists of a mere summary of the principal events of the Emperor's reign from 1515 up to the period of his campaign in France, in 1544. To the battle of Pavia, the sack of Rome, and the Turkish attack on Vienna, only a few lines are devoted; whilst the expedition against Tunis and the defeat of Barbarossa—perhaps the most glorious action of the Emperor's life—are dismissed in a couple of pages; and though the advance into France and the negotiations connected with the Peace of Crespy are treated of somewhat more in detail, yet little new light has, in our opinion, been thrown on any of the more important particulars.

The latter half of the volume—containing, as it does, a narrative of the events of the memorable years 1545, 1546 and 1547—is beyond all doubt the most interesting, and at the same time the most important to the historical student. It gives us, for the first time, a clear insight into the policy of dissimulation pursued by the Emperor towards the Protestants previous to the breaking out of the German war, and amply justifies the peculiar attitude assumed by the leaders of the League of Smalcald subsequent to the Diet of Worms in 1545. In the earlier portion of the Memoirs, Charles passes very lightly over the religious revolution going forward with such unexampled rapidity in his German dominions. All that he says in regard to the Diet of Ratisbon in 1532 is, that "religious matters were therefore left aside, as there was no time to discuss them, and they were left in their actual state." In fact, during the whole period of his reign up to 1545, his policy had ever been to court the favour of the Protestants, whose powerful aid was of so much service to him in the great wars in which he was almost constantly engaged. In 1545, however, Charles occupied a position which at no previous period of his reign he had been permitted to enjoy. On the eastern side of his vast dominions the Turks had for the time ceased to trouble him,—the Moors had never recovered from the effects of the disastrous campaign of 1535,—the hopes of the constitutional party in Spain had been for ever blasted on the fatal field of Villalar,—and the Netherlands had been tamed to submission by the summary punishment inflicted on the rebellious inhabitants of Ghent in 1540. The Peace of Crespy guaranteed quiet on the side of France, and but one dark cloud now troubled the horizon—the Protestant heresies in Germany. To the Empire, therefore, Charles turned his undivided attention, with the determination, either by means of the authority of a General Council to heal the breach between the contending religions, or, if conciliatory measures should fail, as most likely they would, by force to compel at least an outward conformity. That such were the Emperor's intentions in 1545, appears clearly from the expressions he uses in the Memoirs. Speaking of himself, as he does throughout the volume, in the third person, he says—

"He entered Germany with the intention and lively desire to remedy what was taking place, which he hoped to do more easily by means of some amicable arrangement, as he was at peace with the King of France, and there was no appearance of the Turk attacking Germany. But as he knew and had seen the great arrogance and the obstinacy of the Protestants, he feared that no good result would be obtained. He had always maintained the conviction, with many others, that it was impossible to lower by means of severity such obstinacy and so great a power as that possessed by the Protestants: he was therefore perplexed how to act in a matter which it was so necessary and so important to see settled. But God, who never forsakes those who have recourse unto Him, even when they do not deserve it, was not satisfied with granting the grace to the Emperor to give him Gueldres so promptly. The experience of what was occurring also opened the Emperor's eyes and enlightened his mind, so that no longer did it seem to him impossible to subjugate such pride by force, but, on the contrary, it seemed to him most easy, under suitable circumstances and by proper means. As this matter was one of the highest importance and of such great weight, he would not take upon himself to decide it, and he communicated it only (because of the secrecy it was necessary to maintain) to a few of his most trustworthy ministers, who had experience of the past, and to whom, in consequence, he communicated his plans. Their advice agreed with His Majesty's opinion; but the Emperor postponed the execution of the plan, hoping that it would be sanctioned by the Diet of Worms, and foreseeing that in default of restoring order in Germany by quiet and pacific means, it would be necessary to have recourse to arms, according to circumstances and opportunities."

All hopes of a peaceful compromise were extinguished by the results of the Diet of Worms. But even yet the Emperor found it impossible safely to throw off the cloak of dissimulation with which he had so long successfully deluded his opponents. The League of Smalcalde, headed as it was by two of the most powerful and able of the German Princes,—the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse,—was too powerful to be openly defied; and Charles found it necessary to set on foot a secret intrigue with the Pope, for the purpose of obtaining his sanction to the severe measures he proposed to adopt. The Memoirs contain a very interesting account of the negotiations connected with the proposed secret treaty—the conditions of which were, to use the Emperor's own words, "If His Holiness would give them (that is, the Emperor and his brother, the King of the Romans) the support of his spiritual and temporal power, their Majesties, considering that kind and conciliating measures were of no avail, and that the obstinacy and the insolence of the Protestants increased daily to such a degree that it could no longer be tolerated, would undertake by force to remedy and obviate their obstinacy and their insolence."

Cardinal Farnese, grandson and legate of the Pope, was charged with the mission of conveying the Emperor's proposals to Rome. The Pope's betrayal of the secret roused the indignation of the Emperor, and forced him, moreover, to plunge still deeper into a policy of dissimulation. The reports which arrived from Rome awakened the suspicions of the Protestant leaders, and convinced them that mischief was brewing. That Charles himself was aware of this, is apparent from his own words:—"As the secret was violated, and as the Protestants were warned, the Emperor thought fit to act in such a manner that they added no faith to the report which was circulated."

Charles's account of his interview with the Landgrave at Spire differs from that ordinarily given. Robertson would lead us to suppose that the Emperor perfectly succeeded in de-

luding the Landgrave into the belief that the Protestants had no just cause of alarm, and managed to send away the Prince perfectly satisfied with the assurances which he had received. In his Autobiography, on the other hand, Charles briefly says,—“In the interview which the said Landgrave had with His Majesty at Spire, and in the propositions which he made, he displayed so much insolence, that His Majesty dismissed him with a few words.” On the assembling of the Diet of Ratisbon the Emperor declared, in his reply to the Protestant Commissioners, that he did not wish to go to war unless compelled to do so to uphold his authority, which was daily attacked and attempted to be lowered and diminished. It was not against the heretic but against the rebel that preparations were being made. This last attempt at dissimulation was not, however, attended with success. The Protestants were at length awakened to a true sense of their position—they were too astute not to perceive the real meaning of the Emperor's expressions; they saw that, to use the words of M. Mignet, whilst professing to strike only at the Smalcaldic League, Charles's blow was really aimed at the Confession of Augsburg. Henceforth both parties eagerly prepared for war, the only means now left for deciding their dispute.

The remaining portion of the Emperor's Memoirs is almost entirely devoted to an account of the campaigns of 1546 and 1547, the check of the Protestants at Ingolstadt, and their defeat at Muhlberg. The narrative of the war does not, however, differ in any material particular from that given in a more detailed form by Avila in his well-known Commentaries; and we pass on, therefore, to consider one other point which, in our opinion, renders Charles's Autobiography highly important—the view, namely, it gives us of the peculiar relations existing between the Emperor and Paul the Third.

Throughout the Memoirs, Charles does not attempt to disguise the bitter feelings he entertained towards the Sovereign Pontiff; and his indignation exceeds its usual bounds when he speaks of the two crowning acts of Papal insincerity—the withdrawal of the Italian contingent prior to the termination of the German war, and the sudden removal of the Council from Trent to Bologna. The truth is, that long before the campaign in Germany had ended, Paul was at heart on the side of the Protestants, his jealousy of the vastly-increasing power of his Imperial ally far outweighing his religious scruples and his natural hatred and fear of the Lutheran heresy. The singular position in which Charles, the armed defender of the Roman Church, was thus placed in relation to its head, may be considered one of the main causes why he was so anxious to leave behind him an authentic account of the true principles of his policy, thereby clearing his character from the aspersions which had been so often cast upon it on account of his leniency towards the Protestants, and vindicating his claim to the title of a true Christian and Catholic prince. The Autobiography may be said to terminate with the final dispersion of the Protestant confederates. A few pages are, indeed, devoted to a brief account of the siege of Wittenberg, the disturbances in Italy and the conspiracy of Fiesco; but with the events thus recorded we are already familiarly acquainted from other sources. At the conclusion of his personal narrative, therefore, the Emperor is seen surrounded with the halo of victory, happily ignorant of the evil days yet in store for him; never dreaming that the man on whom he had showered the spoils of his great victory was destined ere long to turn his arms against his

benefactor; little foreseeing that, within a few years, he, the triumphant conqueror of Germany, would be compelled to save himself by an ignominious midnight flight from falling as a prisoner into the hands of his own subjects, and that the treaty of Passau was so soon and so fully to avenge the victory of Muhlberg.

As regards the light thrown on the Emperor's character in the present volume, the impression left on our minds is one of surprise at the singular contrasts it presents. Bold and daring in action, inflexible of will and stern of purpose, he was, at the same time, profound in policy and a master of dissimulation, using the men whom he hated as his tools till his purposes were served, amusing them with professions of friendship till he had matured his plans, and then crushing them with a ruthless and unsparing hand. Professing the most ardent love for peace, and for the tranquil pleasures it brings in its train, yet a man of whom it might be more truly said than of most men, that “his life was but a battle and a march,”—an habitual invalid, subject to periodical attacks of excruciating pain, rarely, if ever, enjoying robust health, inheriting from his unhappy mother a strong tendency to the most distressing form of melancholia, yet a monarch of whom it is recorded that during his reign he made fifty different journeys into Germany, Spain, Italy, Flanders, France, England and Africa. One other contrast, too, there is, and that the most striking of all. At the very time when he was declaring with lofty resolution that, “living or dead, he would remain Emperor in Germany,” he was in his secret heart longing for the day, now not far distant, when he should voluntarily descend from the loftiest position mortal ambition could desire, and seek for that repose and quiet, for which he had ever panted, in the monastic seclusion and religious calm of Yuste, where, amidst the lovely scenery of the Vera of Plasencia, the last days of his stormy and troublous career might glide tranquilly by.

On the Recognition of the Southern Confederation. By James Spence. (Bentley.)

FULL of mischievous rancour towards the North, and of extravagant eulogy of the South, Mr. Spence's pamphlet, on ‘The Recognition of the Southern Confederation,’ has all the faults and none of the merits of his more ambitious essay on ‘The American Union.’ Its fairness and consistency may be estimated by the mode in which it deals with those who deprecate any course of action that would “provoke the undying hostility of the Northern power.” “That hostility,” says Mr. Spence, “cannot be provoked, for it exists already. From the earliest history of the United States it has always been there, either active or latent, and some politicians have made a trade of pandering to it;” from which sentence those whom he addresses are left to draw the inference that the Northern States have been distinguished from the Southern by antagonism to Great Britain; whereas every reader of newspapers is aware that, throughout the history of the Union, unfriendly sentiments to this country have been much less general and violent in the North than in the South, where our attitude towards slavery has made our name hated in every planter's home, and that the politicians who have most conspicuously “made a trade of pandering to” American hatred of John Bull have been the representative men of Southern parties. Having loaded the North with the obloquy of all the Anglomaniacs of the combined States, Mr. Spence proceeds with amusing inconsistency to indorse with appro-

bation the views of "a calm writer," who reports, "There is to-day one sentiment in which the whole American people, North and South, seem to agree, and that is a sentiment of hostility to England. *The South is full of it and fierce in its expression.* The North is equally full of it and silent." And then, in the very next paragraph, Mr. Spence speaks of this same South, which is so fierce in its hostility to the mother-country, as being "anxious to be friendly." "Here," says the writer, "is a continent of which one half is full of ineradicable hostility, sometimes latent, but ever there; the other half anxious to be friendly." When has the South manifested this amicable temper? Of course, she would be well pleased to get our help, or the aid of any European power, at the present, and would pay for rifled cannon with courtesies; but much has to be done ere slaveholding South can cordially love, or be anything but distrustful of, abolitionist England. Instead of offering any proof that the South is "anxious to be friendly" with us, Mr. Spence contents himself with arguing that it is to her interest to be on good terms with the chief consumers of her cotton, forgetful that the same reasoning would apply with even greater force to the North, who is so dependent on us for a market for her grain that Mr. Spence calculates, in case she went to war with Great Britain, "the industry of the great majority,—of seven-eighths of the area of her country,—would be paralyzed"! But not content with praising the Southern States for friendly dispositions to this country, Mr. Spence maintains that "they regard our aristocratic institutions with admiration, not with hatred." Strange news this of the South! How long is it since she has so regarded our aristocratic institutions? Most assuredly she has not manifested her admiration by imitating them; and, if there were need to do so, we could refer Mr. Spence to passages in the works and speeches of the most admired statesmen of the South, that measure out to our "admirer aristocratic institutions" rather warm denunciation.

There is a fashion just now to speak in this absurd tone of the South; to represent her as animated with European chivalry, formed by European culture, enamoured of feudal traditions, and peopled with men and women drawn from the best blood of old England. Sensible men would do well to discontinue this foolish and delusive rhodomontade, and recognize the truth—that the South can offer just no reason whatever why they should love England, and that in their own hearts the English friends of the South lean towards her simply because they want her cotton. The South has had full justice done to her in this journal. Acutely regretting the rupture of the Union, we have from the first maintained that the South had a constitutional right to secede, and that the attempt to coerce her to return to the Federation would be a failure. But we must decline to echo Mr. Spence's laudations. Westward in need of the slaveholding Federation as a "business connexion"; it is not in the nature of things that she can ever be (while she remains what she is) our trusted friend. If we address her with misplaced compliments, she will only laugh at us. She rates her own power highly, but not too highly; and she will estimate our professions at their exact worth. The game, she is confident, will in the long run be hers. "Cotton is king," has been her boast for many years with regard to England, and now she knows the time is fast approaching when the first law of nature will drive the first manufacturing power of the world into the Court of King Cotton. But let us not lose our own dignity and amuse her by hoodwinking ourselves as to the exact nature

of the course we may have to take. She knows as well as we do that the Morrill Tariff sowed disaffection between Great Britain and the North, and the new Tariff Bill has completed what the Morrill Tariff began. Not less clearly does she see that as is our hostility to the North so is our good-will to her; that it is the good-will of self-interest, leading us to her because we want to buy what she has to sell, not because we care for what she thinks,—least of all, because she "adores our aristocratic institutions."

In support of immediate recognition of the Southern Confederation, Mr. Spence brings forward no new arguments, and uses no old one that was not put with greater force by speakers in the debate on Mr. Lindsay's motion. Much of his pamphlet is mere "sensation" writing. In his concluding reference to the fearful revelations of the poor-law returns, he says, "Even this represents but a part of the misery; and those who doubt this may read the account of the poor widow who died last week, in London, of starvation rather than beg." It is impossible to say what would have been, if that which did take place had not taken place; but without calling into service a string of assumptions, we cannot see how the death of the unfortunate lady whose case is, we presume, referred to, can be traced to the commercial distress consequent on the American War.

Reminiscences of the Life and Character of Count Cavour. By William de La Rive. Translated from the French by Edward Romilly. (Longman & Co.)

THESE memorial chapters originally appeared in successive numbers of a periodical published at Geneva. They are of interest now, when Italy again throbs, expectant of new changes, and when the policy of her young kingdom is once more a problem to be keenly scanned by Europe. M. de La Rive, however, does not affect impartiality. His book is one long dedication of praise—not fulsome or redundant, but warm, loving and grateful—the considerate, kindly praise of a long familiar friend. Therefore, we are not disappointed when the passages which take the form of criticism become apologies rather than analyses. Thus, he sums up his narrative and generalizes upon the character of its hero before he has begun the one or illustrated the other; and, having settled a verdict, takes in hand the evidence. But there is no attempt, such as invariably stamps a poor biography, to rake up extraordinary anecdotes of Cavour's infancy. "Big Camille" was a strong, romping boy, with a horror of study, dressed "in a little red coat, which gave him a droll and at the same time a determined look," and much inclined to be arbitrary. First a military student, and then as a royal page, he made a generally fair progress towards manhood; became, by special favour, a subaltern officer of Engineers at sixteen, and served in garrison at Ventimiglia, Lesseillon and Genoa, "until, in consequence of using some imprudent expressions, he got into disgrace, which he soon found could only end by resigning his commission." Early was contracted the great dislike of his life—a dislike of Charles Albert; his only hatred, M. de La Rive says, was a hatred of Field-Marshal Haynau. Charles Albert, in his turn, heartily detested the young man, who, thenceforward, having little love of books, no inclination to write, no rank as a soldier, and no desire to become a professional malecontent, took to agriculture, at twenty-two, and speculated in rice-grounds:—

"Nowhere did Cavour feel so thoroughly at home as at Léri. At a later period of his life it was there, when disheartened or fatigued with

business, he retired to forget his political anxieties; and the moment he had a short holiday it was to Léri that he hurried off. And yet the country is very ugly, very flat, with no shade to break its monotony, with no river to give life to a scene inanimate by nature; nothing but rice-fields and meadows, the unhealthy verdure of which contrasts with the whiteness of the long clayey roads, striking off in straight lines till they are lost to sight. Then, at a great distance one from the other, are to be seen immense farm buildings, or rather agglomerations of low constructions made of an earthy and yellowish brick, like so many villages cowering under a burning sky, and at times poisoned by the fetid exhalations from the neighbouring marshes."

He could expatiate profoundly on asparagus, declaring that "an old asparagus field is land of the first quality"; but he wanted to discover why, once abandoned, it can never be made into an asparagus field again, and was assiduous in chemical experiments to work out his agricultural ideas. He carried out his enterprises on a large scale—cleared forests, exported hundreds of merino sheep, constructed canals; established packet-boats on Lago Maggiore, with steam corn-mills at Turin; formed a railway company, and founded a bank:—

"It was in vain, however, to attempt to shut the doors of public life, either great or small, in Cavour's face. He made his way by degrees within the circle, by those narrow by-paths which an active man discovers without even looking for them, and which he widens for himself without being aware of it. The secret attacks which the Government made on him in the Agricultural Committee, only brought him into greater notice; and bringing him into notice was raising him. The Agricultural Society, whether they came forward in his defence or not, were in the habit of reckoning upon him, and the class of which the Society was principally composed soon regarded him as the representative of their interests. Whilst, through the Agricultural Society, he was gaining a footing in public opinion, then so silent, but destined soon to become so eloquent, he brought together at Turin, and consequently around himself, in an association of a totally different kind, several members of the Piedmontese aristocracy. The club which, on the model of the clubs of London and Paris, and under the innocent and assumed name of the Whist Club, he founded with Count Pralormo, the Marquis Alfieri, and some others, became not only a social circle, but a focus of politics."

M. de La Rive suggests a parallel between Cavour and Charles James Fox,—a parallel very difficult, if not impossible, to sustain. Indeed, M. de La Rive himself immediately afterwards compares the great Italian minister with Pitt. Cavour himself, we believe, saw his own image, partially at least, in Sir Robert Peel. Respecting the prodigality with which he has been charged, it is admitted that he reduced his patrimony: the following confesses rather than excuses it:—

"During my journey with him, I remember that he never gave the postilion less than a napoleon; and more than one beggar, sitting by the roadside, picked up from the dust, after we had passed by, a coin which, until then, was probably unknown to him. No tradesman ever heard from him any complaint of his charges. He was one of those who do not bargain, but pay. At Paris, the master of an hotel, where Cavour had spent forty-eight hours without once dining there, brought him a bill of 1,200 francs. 'Just imagine,' he said to me, laughing, 'my secretary positively objected to paying it; and I have had great trouble in bringing him to reason; he did not understand that it could be part of my policy to be robbed without saying a word.'"

Here, assuredly, was ostentation—innocent, perhaps, but ostentation nevertheless. During his "boisterous" residence in Paris, he "lived at a great rate":—

"He was fond of the turf, but I do not believe he ever kept race-horses. At all events, he spoke of the turf as if he had never practically been a member of it. 'We shall soon see,' he wrote in 1847, 'if England considers the turf as the best school for forming statesmen.'"

And this is characteristic:—

"Having succeeded in advantageously disposing of his fifty shares in some railway company, Cavour wrote to my father, 'When I have made a couple of millions or so, we will travel together to England, where we will hold up our heads like peers of the realm.' Although his pecuniary anticipations were not realized, he did not the less make the journey to England with my father, in 1843, without, however, assuming the manners of lords."

His travels did not bring him within the first circles of society, especially in England. He had friends at London, Paris, Turin, Florence, Switzerland and other cities—not including, however, Vienna; and, as M. de La Rive adds, enemies on all sides, but remained, as yet, only "the obscure citizen of Piedmont." In 1847, in conjunction with others, he started the *Risorgimento*, and thence into political life the transition was natural; and he became an independent member of the Italian Parliament; next, a volunteer in the ranks of the King he disliked:—

"The first speech in which Cavour's superiority was felt was on the occasion of a loan proposed by Count Revel. The discussion to which this loan gave rise was of a kind to bring forth some of the best oratorical qualities of a man to whom financial questions were as familiar as they were little understood by the rest of the assembly. The facility with which Cavour dealt with figures, the varied nature of his arguments, the clearness of his language, created a deep sensation, and placed him at once in the foremost rank of political speakers."

In illustration of his political foresight, an incident of his life as a journalist was worth recording. On the 16th of November, 1848, referring to the events in France, he wrote,— "One moment longer, and we shall see, as a last result of these revolutionary proceedings, Louis Napoleon on the throne of France." It was M. Thiers who, three years later, gained credit for uttering the same prophecy.

Then ensued his introduction to the cabinet of Victor Emmanuel, as Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and the Navy:—

"It is said that when his nomination was laid before the King in council for his approval and signature, Victor Emmanuel observed with a smile, 'I am quite ready to approve; but mark my words, he will take every one of your offices into his own hands,'—a saying, the letter as well as the spirit of which was afterwards verified; for there was not one government department, with the exception of that of Justice, which Cavour was not destined to fill."

Alluding to Marshal Haynau's reception in London, Cavour remarked, "The draymen of London have given a lesson to Europe." But his own task was now an arduous one. In 1852 he was sent for by the King, upon the retirement of M. d'Azeglio, to form a ministry. The Roman question was convulsing Italy; Victor Emmanuel wanted to conciliate the Church, which wanted Balbo. "Then send for Balbo," said Cavour. Balbo was sent for. The priests were in ecstasies. "But," wrote Cavour, in a private letter quoted by M. de La Rive,—

"I doubt their joy being of long duration, for the irritation against the clergy is greater than ever. I am convinced of the King's good faith. Priestly cunning has led him astray. He is mistaken as to the state of the country. When his eyes have been opened by facts, he will send the clerical party to the d—l."

Immediately afterwards, Balbo failed, Cavour was nominated, and, excepting a short interval after the Peace of Villafranca, remained First Minister until the moment of his death. M.

de La Rive draws an interesting picture of his official life—his industry, versatility and method. We now come to a few historical anecdotes:—

"As early as 1854, towards the end of the spring of the year, just before the Russian war began, Cavour, being with Count Lissio at the house of Madame Alfieri, his niece said to him, 'Why don't you send 10,000 men to the Crimea?'—'Well said!' observed Count Lissio. Cavour was startled; a smile suddenly lighted up his countenance, and then, with a sigh, he answered, 'Ah! if every one had only your courage, what you suggest would have been done already.' Some months later, in November, when he again met Count Lissio in the same drawing-room, and was standing silent and thoughtful before the fireplace, his niece said to him, 'Well, uncle, when do we start for the Crimea?'—'Who can tell?' answered Cavour; 'England urges me to conclude a treaty with her, which would enable our troops to wipe out the disgrace of Novara. But what would you have me do? The whole of my Cabinet is against it. Ratazzi himself, and even my excellent friend Lamarmora, talk of resigning. However, the King is with me, and we two shall carry the day.'"

Here is another, not flattering, which bears on the diplomatic discussions of 1858:—

"'Have you remarked,' he wrote, 'the atrocious trick which Lord Palmerston has tried to play us? He has endeavoured to gain popularity at our expense, and to turn the affair of the port of Villafranca to account, in the same way as his friends, last winter, endeavoured to take advantage of Lord Ellenborough's 'famous despatch.'"

He was at that time half afraid of England, though not so alarmed as the Italian people, who fully believed that our Government would take part with Austria:—

"In March, 1859, I happened to be at Genoa with a friend, and we were looking upon the port crowded with vessels bearing the Sardinian flag. 'They have not much to do,' observed a boatman who was rowing us about the harbour.—'Why not,' I replied, 'what do you say to the war? If France is with you, are you going to be afraid of Austria at sea?'—'Austria? Certainly not; but England.'—'And do you suppose that England is going to war with you?'—'I can't say,' retorted the sailor, 'but I know this, that you will not persuade a single owner of a vessel to freight his ship for Liverpool; he might send it to Marseilles, perhaps. Look there,' continued he, pointing to a British frigate which was dancing up and down at the mouth of the harbour, 'there is one waiting now.'"

We must allow M. de La Rive to gossip over two or three additional reminiscences:—

"It was about the same period that the valet whom I have just mentioned went one morning into the room where Cavour was at work, to say that there was a man below who asked to see the Count. 'What is his name?'—'He would not give it. He has a large stick, and a broad-brimmed hat; but he will have it that Monsieur le Comte expects him.'—'Ah!' replied Cavour, rising from his chair, 'let him come in....' That man was Garibaldi, just arrived from Caprera. Cavour had always entertained a good opinion of Garibaldi."

This belongs to an earlier period:—

"One day, when my father expected the Duc de Broglie to dinner, on going into his room to dress, Cavour found his orders and crosses displayed on his dressing-table. 'What does all this mean?' he said to his servant. The servant observed that in the presence of so considerable a personage as the Duc de Broglie, a *grand cordon* was indispensable, or at least a medal, added he. 'Be so kind as to carry all that away,' said M. de Cavour; but on the servant persisting, 'Well,' added he, 'I will consent to what you wish, but on one condition, and that is that the Duc de Broglie himself wears at least one order: his rank is high enough, you must admit, and I can do like him without bringing you into disgrace!' The servant acquiesced, and hurried at once down stairs into the hall to wait for the approach of the Duke and ascertain how he was decorated. A few minutes afterwards he came slowly up again, quite out of countenance, and

complaining that his master had laid a trap for him."

The Countess Alfieri's touching narrative of his illness and death is appended. Among his dying words were these:—

"Garibaldi is an honest man; I wish him no evil. His desire is to go to Rome and to Venice, and so is mine; no one is in a greater hurry than we are. As for Istria and the Tyrol, that is another thing. That must be for another generation. We have done quite enough for our generation, we have made Italy—*vi, l'Italia e la cosa va*. That Germanic confederation is an anomaly; it will be dissolved, and a Germanic union will be established, but the house of Hapsburg will never change. What will the Prussians do? They are so slow in making up their minds. It will take them fifty years to do what we have done in three. Whilst this craving after unity is taking possession of Europe, there is America thinking of separation! Can any of you in the least understand those intestine quarrels in the United States? As for myself, in my youth I was a passionate admirer of the Americans, but I am cured of my illusions; and I confess that what is going on on the other side of the Atlantic is to me a perfect enigma."

Mr. Romilly has translated, clearly and gracefully, these pleasing contributions to the biography of Camille Benso de Cavour, of whom it was true, in his latest as in his earlier days, that, on all sides, he had friends and enemies. The friends are devoted; but all the enemies are not yet convinced.

Volcanos: the Character of their Phenomena, their Share in the Structure and Composition of the Surface of the Globe, and their Relation to its Internal Forces; with a Descriptive Catalogue of all known Volcanos and Volcanic Formations. By G. Poulett Scrope, M.P. Second Edition, revised and enlarged. (Longman & Co.)

Seven-and-thirty years ago Mr. Scrope published the first edition of this work, and now that it has been long out of print, and also nearly out of date, he presents what is substantially a new book, and may fairly claim notice as such. The ample title-page indicates the author's object; and although Dr. Daubeny has also put forth a similar volume which has been long held in esteem by geologists, it may be affirmed that Mr. Scrope's second edition is the best volume of reference on the subject. It is compendious, well arranged and moderately complete; yet those who have minutely acquainted themselves with particular volcanic centres and countries may consider some things to be insufficient and some to be lacking. Any one, for example, who has studied the volcanic phenomena of Iceland will think the brief notice of them in these pages very meagre. As more than twenty of its fiery mountains have been in active eruption within the historic period, it should certainly have obtained more ample elucidation and description; both of which might have been readily compiled from Henderson, amongst the older books, and from the accounts given by very recent visitors. Condensed notices of the latter have appeared in our own columns, not to dwell upon the descriptions of some of our foreign correspondents relating to volcanos of other countries, and which have appeared at various times of late years. We might particularly instance the late great eruption of Vesuvius as receiving inadequate notice at Mr. Scrope's hands, while a letter in our columns would have afforded him interesting information.

With such exceptions, we are ready to recognize the value of Mr. Scrope's manual, especially for those readers who wish to have all they care to read on this subject in one volume. Under a different mode of treat-

ment, and by a different hand, it might have been rendered descriptive and generally attractive; but as it comes before us it can only be regarded as an intelligible scientific work. So much of it is mere condensation of reported materials, that the compiler could not lighten his lavas, even if he would, by description and power of pen. It is dry and hot walking over these miles upon miles of black cinders and grey ashes. How can we expect flowers where there is little or no soil? How can we look for smiling fields and gurgling streams where fire and smoke have breathed scorchingly over vast districts? Sombre and saddening monuments of an untameable fierceness are these dread volcanos; they stand as dreadful evidence of what Nature can do in her hottest wrath; and the silence of Desolation is no prompter of poetry or fancy. A geologist may break that silence with his hammer, and bruise his shins with the blocks of lava; but it would require something more than a geologist, or something added on to geology, to make an attractive volume out of classified lavas, and a catalogue of all known volcanos. A man may make a mirror out of obsidian, but it will only give back a dark image after all.

Nevertheless, there are some fine themes for description in volcanic effects. There is, for instance, the remarkable valley of Thingvall, in Iceland, which is a depression, running for four miles, at a depth of about 800 feet, and bordered on either side for seven or eight miles, before it reaches a lake, by a great chasm, which is perfectly straight, and averages perhaps 100 feet in width and more than 150 feet in depth. Black, precipitous lava-cliffs form the sides, and frown on each other with corresponding indentations, showing that they were originally torn asunder by the rending eruption, or probably by the subsidence of the upper crust of a vast lava-stream, which flowed from an adjoining mountain into the Thingvall lake. In a space inclosed by the lava-walls, and affording a mooted position, assembled the ancient Althing, or Court of Judgment and Parliament of the island. Something pictorial might fairly be made of this fact. The rough, sturdily magnates might be described as winding slowly down the Almanagia, the name given to the largest of the rifts. They journey upon the very floor of desolation; they pass through walls of once-seething matter; they are naturally and strikingly admonished of the stern and the terrible; they go to mete out justice, and Nature herself seems to have written her laws in herbless rift, on forbidding floor and on sharply-parted walls of molten rock,—all indicating the hidden powers of hollow earth-rents, and intimating the vengeance that may burst forth upon unjust judges and iniquitous parliaments. This kind of by-play, however, would not suit Mr. Scrope or any mere geologist; and so we must return to the rigidity of basalt and the desolation of trachyte.

In one rare instance an analogy is drawn from a common substance, and is of curious interest:—

"There is a considerable analogy, as has been already suggested, between the condition of many lavas at the time of their emission from a volcanic vent, and also while undergoing the subsequent process of cooling and consolidation, with that of the syrup of sugar during the later stages of the manufacture of that substance. In both cases the matter is not a homogeneous molecular liquid, such as any melted or completely fused substance, but (according to my view of the nature of lava) a 'magma' or compound of crystalline or granular particles to which a certain mobility is given by an interstitial fluid, which is in both cases heated water or steam; and in both cases consolidation is effected through the evaporation and escape of this aqueous vehicle,

by which the particles are brought together in a manner favourable to their cohesive aggregation in a rigid and more or less crystalline mass. It is worthy of remark, that almost every variety of texture observable in different lava-rocks has its counterpart in some of the various modifications in which sugar is produced for the market by very slight variations in the process of manufacture. The extremely viscous, ropy, filamentous, and vitreous lavas have their analogues in barley-sugar and other kinds obtained by melting; the ribboned lavas, in brandy-balls or coloured stick-sugars. There are compact sorts of both rock-sugar and lava-rock in which only the finest granular or scaly texture is perceivable; while the highly crystalline and sparkling grain of loaf-sugar strongly resembles that of the porous and very crystalline lavas, whether augitic or felspathic. Finally, sugar-candy may be compared to the granitoid and porphyritic trachytes composed of large and perfect crystals of felspar, augite, hornblende, mica, or quartz. The parallel here instituted is not a merely fanciful one. However homely the illustration, it may throw a light, I believe, upon the origin of the various distinctive textures of lava-rocks, and suggests how small a difference in the circumstances affecting them, of temperature, motion, or exposure to the atmosphere, may have given rise to these varieties in the same elementary matter."

A curious volcanic phenomenon is the summer ice-grotto of the Upper Eifel,—which, together with the explanation, is, worth quotation:—

"The village of Roth is built on a current of basalt derived from the cone which rises above it, and which has also emitted a considerable mass of lava towards the north and west. A small cavern, the mouth of a deep fissure in one of these lava-currents, half-way up the side of the cone, is noted for exhibiting a phenomenon met with frequently amongst volcanic formations. The floor of this grotto was paved with a thick crust of ice when I visited it, at noon, on a very hot day at the end of August. During the summer, the peasants of the neighbourhood say it is always to be found there, while in the winter there is none, but, on the contrary, that the shepherds creep into the cavern for warmth. The cave is probably the mouth of one of those arched galleries which are so often found under currents of lava in Iceland, Bourbon, and elsewhere. If the other extremity of the gallery communicates with the open air at a much lower level, for instance at the foot of the cone, or where the lava-stream terminates in the plain below, a current of air must be continually driven through this passage from the lower to the upper extremity. In its passage it would be thoroughly dried, from the absorbent nature of the rock (which is perhaps partly owing to the sulphuric or muriatic acids it contains); and the evaporating effect of this current on the wet floor of the grotto from which it issues, moistened by some superficial rill, will be sufficient to coat it with ice in summer,—since the more rarefied by heat the external air, the more rapid will be the current of cool dry air, and, consequently, the evaporation. In winter, a similar draught of air, though less rapid, will be produced, and taking the temperature of the rocks through which it passes (which, from the depth of the gallery, will be about the mean annual temperature of that climate), must appear warm, compared with the external air, to the shepherds who seek a shelter at the mouth of the fissure."

The interest of this subject extends beyond our own globe, and even to the moon, which, when viewed through a powerful telescope, silently indicates her own tale of fiery eruptions and fierce volcanic activities. Most of its craters are strikingly uniform; they are so numerous that they occupy by far the larger portion of the moon's visible surface. Sir John Herschel informs us that "they offer, in short, in its highest perfection, the true volcanic character, as it may be seen in the crater of Vesuvius, or in a map of the volcanic district of the Campi Phlegrei or of the Puy de Dôme; and in some of the principal ones marks of volcanic stratification, arising from successive deposits of

ejected matter, may be clearly traced with powerful telescopes." Mr. Scrope adds:—"From some of the loftiest and largest mountains of the moon there stretch outwardly on all sides numerous radiating lines, reflecting a brilliant light, and therefore elevated like causeways above the intervening shadowy hollows. They are probably either lava-streams that have flowed to great distances from the central eruptive heights, or dykes protruded upwards in vertical ridges from radiating fissures." Probably, too, the lunar volcanos have been quiet for centuries, for astronomers have observed no change in those mountains. The moon, indeed, presents the appearance of "a burnt-out globe, once imbued with volcanic life and an intense outward activity, probably with seas and an atmosphere, now dried up and extinct,—at least, as respects the hemisphere which alone we are able to contemplate, and which by an eccentricity in its centre of gravity seems fastened irrevocably towards us by the powerful attraction of our larger and denser planet."

Strange that the moon, of whose brilliancy poets so sweetly and so constantly sing, and whose light is the charm and solace of our nights, should in reality be a burnt-out globe, a world whose ineffectual fires have wholly paled!

A third edition of this work will, we hope, appear long before a second seven-and-thirty years shall have elapsed. Indeed, a few years may add much to our knowledge of volcanic phenomena, and to the register of the number of volcanos. If the world does not speedily come to an end by a number of simultaneous and severe volcanic eruptions, which it must do if some pulpit prophets are to prove true, we may fairly expect to learn many useful facts explanatory of the formation and action of volcanos. Even if the world should end in the way the said prophets predict, we may console ourselves with the thought that though it will then be, like the moon, a burnt-out globe, nevertheless, like that fine orb, it may shine brilliantly to other worlds. Perhaps when it is a huge cinder, and we, probably, mere ashes upon its surface, other beings on other globes will be scrutinizing our old craters and ridges, and imagining and conjecturing respecting the extinct races of creatures who once comfortably lived upon its cool surface, and built cities and raised monuments, the fame whereof has somehow gone out amongst all inhabited lands!

Chief Points in the Laws of War and Neutrality, Search and Blockade; with the Changes of 1856, and those now proposed. By John Fraser Macqueen, Esq., Q.C. (Chambers.)

By far the larger number of questions which arise concerning the laws of war relate to maritime war. Our great Duke of Wellington happily proved that in an enemy's country the interest of the invading army and the exercise of forbearance and mercy go hand in hand. The commissariat must be supplied from the surrounding country, and this supply must in great measure depend upon the state of feeling which exists between the army and the people. These considerations do not apply to belligerents at sea; and perhaps there is no subject which presents more difficulties than the consideration of what is the true interest of England, as the greatest maritime nation of the world, with respect to the rules by which she shall be bound in the prosecution of naval warfare.

With respect to the belligerents themselves, the great principle of the law of nations is, and, we think, must be, that when war is declared the governments are identified with their people, so that you cannot be at war with the one and

at peace with the other. A political war and a commercial peace is an impossibility, and if it were possible it would not be expedient. The burdens which war imposes are the great check upon wanton and unjust wars. A certain class in every country has an interest in the maintenance of a state of war, and we could not afford to lose the strong countervailing influence in favour of peace which is supplied by the injury to the commerce of the belligerent state, or wars might be endless. But the most difficult and delicate questions arise as to the position of neutrals. It is hard that they should suffer because their neighbours fall out—that Manchester should starve for the sins of New York and Charleston. Again, the annoyance and insults offered to neutrals in exercise of the right of search has a direct tendency to force those neutrals into war: a danger which has in our own case been so recently illustrated and so honourably avoided.

The Paris solemn Declaration of 1856, together with the civil war in the United States of America, have directed special attention to matters of this nature, and also to the changes which have been effected, and which are talked of in the laws which are the subject of this little volume. The author has contented himself with stating the chief points in these laws, putting forward here and there a suggestion, and leaving the decision to the reader's judgment. A passage or two from this little work may show the way in which the author has treated his subject, and the interesting nature of the matter discussed.

Mr. Macqueen thus states the nature of the contest that will call into operation the laws of war and neutrality:—

"The war must be what is called in the language of international law a *regular* war. It must be between two separate states, by the sovereign authority of each; or it may be between one portion of a state and another portion of the same state. Suppose a rebellion, or a clamour for secession. Let us take rebellion first. It involves a civil war. Of this nature was the revolt of the Low Countries against Spain, three centuries ago. No one disputed that the most cruel of all contests which then ensued between sovereign and subject was orthodox, so far as neutrals were concerned, however much it violated the municipal code. It was not for the world at large to await the recognition of the tyrannical Philip. Then, as to secession. The attempt may be illegal. The actors may be traitors. But at a necessary period the law of nations will step in to define and to fix the rights and duties of the belligerents relatively to neutrals. At all events, we must hold that, ever since the date of Queen Victoria's proclamation, the unhappy civil war now raging in America has been *regular*. The Federal Government itself, both by conduct and by direct appeal, has invoked the law of nations, which, where it properly applies, must be accepted by all; but it does not follow that the municipal relations are displaced as between the belligerents. The Southern insurgents may be rebels, and may continue rebels, till their rebellion has succeeded or has been suppressed."

The author sets forth the amendments in the maritime law in time of war which were agreed upon by the Plenipotentiaries at Paris in 1856, and also the important recommendation, since made by a Committee of the House of Commons, that all property not contraband of war should be exempt from capture at sea; and in a supplemental chapter he shows the present state of opinion in the House of Commons on the proposed changes, as enunciated by the members who took part in the discussion of Mr. Horsfall's motion in March last. His remarks upon all these matters are suggestive, but he abstains from expressing his own opinion. We recommend this little book, as containing, in the smallest compass and in the plainest language,

a comprehensive view of a subject which is now of the greatest interest to all Englishmen.

History of the Names of Men, Nations, and Places, in their Connection with the Progress of Civilization. From the French of 'Eusebius Salverte.' Translated by the Rev. L. H. Mor-dacque, M.A. Oxon. Vol. I. (J. R. Smith.)

HALF the old prologues used to commence with that hackneyed phrase, "The Bard to-night," and half the bad sonneteers of the last century began their rhymes to the moon with "Silver Orb," "Luna, chaste Queen," or some similar shibboleth, which became the ensign of a writer's weakness. So, preface-compilers, who have as little real story to tell as the knife-grinder in the 'Anti-Jacobin,' open their record of sterility with some self-evident platitude, such as "Nothing is without importance in man when we view him as a social being." On finding M. Salverte thus introducing his essay on names, we began to suspect that he was about to "make a book," when he might have been better employed in smoking a pipe.

There is no necessity for writing a treatise to prove anything that is self-demonstrative. It is manifest that every name once had a meaning, however unintelligible the name may seem now. The American Indians who adopted Edmund Kean as a brother, gave him a musically-melancholy name, of significance to them, but of none to us. The Imaum of Muscat could make nothing of Signor *Vincenzo*, his physician; but when the latter remarked that it meant *victorious*, "Then let us call you so in proper language," said the Imaum, and the doctor was henceforth known as Sheikh Mansour.

Conceits connected with names are numerous enough. St. *Marcou* is a corruption of St. Marceau, and because *cou* is French for "neck," people used to, and we believe, still do pray to that saint to cure or prevent diseases in or damage to the neck. In the old guillotine days this saint had a weary time of it. Numerous are the instances of such conceits, and sometimes they took an unlucky turn, as when Manuel Comnenus suspected his son-in-law, Alexis, of treason, for the reason that his name began with the first letter in the alphabet, and he would consequently be likely to aspire to be accounted A 1 in the state!

As there was a sacred name for the city of Rome, which no one could pronounce without being guilty of impiety, but which our readers may utter without incurring any penalty—the sacred name was VALENTIA,—so even now are there individuals whose names are not to be uttered at all, or, at least, not by your low-bred people. In Siam, it is only a Mandarin of the first rank who dares utter the King's name; and that of the Emperor-priest of Japan, though known to his own court attendants, is never publicly announced till after his death. On the other hand, there exist whole "peoples" who possess no distinctive name until one is given them by foreigners who come among them. This, at least, was the case when that fine old navigator, Dampier, visited the lively Mosquitos. This sounds "savage" and "barbarous"; but the early Christians were not much more enlightened when they had to give a name to a newly-born child, on which occasions a number of candles were lit, with a saint's name given to each, and that name was bestowed on the child which belonged to the candle that burned longest.

M. Salverte notices that in some parts of Europe the wife's name became the surname of the husband. This custom still prevails in some provinces of M. Salverte's own native

country. For instance, a M. Frédéric Harrewyn marries Mlle. Bel, and they become, not, as with us, Mr. and Mrs. Frederic Harrewyn, but Harrewyn-Bel. The gentleman's sister marries, we will say, a M. St-Gest, who thenceforth becomes St-Gest-Harrewyn. But this is only for distinction, the gentleman always being addressed by his own family name. Thus, Ledru-Rollin is properly M. Ledru, and not M. Rollin; and we all know that Mendelssohn-Bartholdy is not named Bartholdy, but Mendelssohn.

Further, we remember no case in France where a surname can be conferred on a child at its christening. It is lawful to give him or her as many names of male and female saints, indiscriminately, as may seem good to the gossips, but no surnames to serve as Christian names. With us Mrs. Brown may christen her son after his godfathers, and he will be registered as *Jones Robertson Brown*. In France, the priest would accept "John Robert," but he would utterly ignore Jones Robertson, as heathenish!

Our readers, of course, remember how

— felt the magnificent Son of Achar,
When from power and pomp and the trophies of war,
He flew to the Valley, forgetting them all,
With the Light of the Harem, the young Nourmahal.

—According to the poet, he felt and said that

If Woman can make the worst wilderness dear,
Think, think what a Heaven she must make of Cashmere!

Speaking of heathen names reminded us of what M. Salverte says with respect to that fairest of the heroines in that poem for all spring-time, 'Lalla Rookh.' Everybody, in his happy turn, has been in love with that lady of the peerless enchantments; perhaps they will be taken a little a-back when they hear that before the lord of the East gave her the name of Nourmahal, *Light of the Harem*, or, in the later excess of his love, Nourdjihan, *Light of the World*, she was known to her family and friends as Mher-ul-Nica, or, in equivalent Saxon, the "Strapping Wench," and that this "tallest of women," of whom it is said her lover, Djihanguyr,

— preferred in his heart the least ringlet that curl'd
Down her exquisite neck to the throne of the world,
only became the light of his harem by the process of cutting the throat of her first husband. If this annotation, to be made in all copies of the poem, do not wring all charm out of the names by which the poet's lady is known to fame, then fiction again will prove stronger than fact.

Probably, the name of Mher-ul-Nica was given to the lusty baby who promised to exceed any of her sex in stature as she grew up, and the bearer may not, after all, have been as loftily necked as a giraffe. We suppose it was hoped that Keturah would be, rather than that she was, the *diffuser of aromatic odours*; and we believe that Japanese girls, all of whose names are taken from flowers, do not invariably justify the selection of the name they bear.

The author notices certain Roman families, the male members of which bore the same prename. Similar instances, again, may be taken from the author's own country. When De Cossé, Duke de Brissac, was asked by the secretary of the revolutionary tribunal as to his baptismal name, his reply was "I am a De Cossé; my name is therefore *Timoleon*!" This brave fellow was one of the idlest aristocrats in France, when idleness was an aristocratic fashion; but he had a daily sense of the propriety of being employed, and he found a pursuit accordingly. "De Cossé," he used to say, on opening his eyes of a morning, "God has created thee a gentleman, and the king has made thee a duke; but it is proper that thou shouldst do something, in thy turn;—thou shalt shave thyself!"

N° 1817, Aug. 23, '62

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There are no cases in England, as far as we know, where the same Christian name is given, with others, to every member of the family. We are only aware of one exceptional case, in these islands, in the family of the Earl of Mountnorris, all whose sons and daughters bear the name of Arthur, among other baptismal appellations. Families have often adopted fictitious or "made-up" names. *Rose d'Amour* is one of these, but it is borne by a lady of the family we have just named, in conjunction with that of Arthur. *Dea*, again, was the Christian name of the wife of the Doge Morosini. M. Salvete remarks, that Wolcott assumed the name of Peter Pindar, and adds "this slight affectation has only been looked upon as an intentional joke. While doing justice to the talents of the Poet-Laureate, the English did not proclaim him to be the heir of the Theban lyric poet; they would rather have looked upon him as a formidable disciple of Archilochus and Hipponax." This amusing blunder of describing the great lampooner of George the Third as his Poet-Laureate is left uncorrected by the English translator! As to comparing Peter Pindar to Archilochus and Hipponax, we can only say that he never invented a new measure, that his style was neither beautiful nor vigorous, and that his satires never drove a Lycambes, a Bupalus, or an Anthermus to hang himself in despair.

As a sample of the style in which this book is composed, we make an extract from a chapter, in which is thus given the history of a word, "Imperator":—

"It was given to a general by the soldiers who had served under him, after any signal victory, and the voice of the people usually ratified the acclamations of the army. The title of Imperator was given up when the insignia of office were laid down; on the completion of the customary five years, the chief of the senate was re-elected by the censors; a limited tenure added to the value of the title. When Octavius had made his way to the throne, he realized how necessary it was that he should reign under a title which should be inoffensive to the partisans of the republic. That of 'chief of the senate' seemed to be the limit of his ambition. He obtained it, and moreover kept it to the end of his life. Whom would they have dared to place before him in the senate? By that title, therefore, untainted as it was then by any reminiscences of tyranny or proscriptions, and not by the titles of either dictator or king, did he establish the sovereign power. His successor would naturally wish to follow his example; Tiberius was accordingly called chief of the senate, after the ancient custom, and used to remind his subjects that he was only the chief or first amongst the citizens. The title 'chief of the senate' simply reminded them of the majesty of the law; it became necessary, in military affairs, to adopt a title which should remind them of the influence and power of the army. An obsequious senate had conferred the title of 'Imperator' on Julius Caesar for his own life, and had further given it by anticipation to the sons and grandsons who might be born of that usurper's family. An equally obsequious senate offered a similar decree to Octavius, but that cautious tyrant never claimed its enforcement. As chief magistrate, he was always proclaimed Imperator whenever a great victory was gained by his lieutenants, so that he was by no means anxious that the same law should secure the title to his children. Tiberius and Drusus owed their titles to his generosity. As to the other generals, he depended upon their servile natures for their not daring to assume the titles without his permission, or even for their following the example of Agrippa, and, by constant refusals, forcing the troops to discontinue the practice of awarding them an honour which for the future was to be reserved for the sovereign only. His expectations were not deceived, for in the eighth year of his successor's reign the reform was successfully established. When Junius Blaesus had conquered Tacfarinas, he received the title of Imperator with the consent of Tiberius; he

was the last general who had the honour conferred upon him."

The people, who regarded deeds rather than titles, deserve a notice, however brief; and here is something to the point:—

"The patricians in Lucca allowed no such titles amongst themselves as marquis, count, or baron, which were so common in some of the rest of the Italian states. In a somewhat similar way the patricians of Venice assumed no titles. Here, however, we must except the title of knight, which entailed the right of wearing the golden stole. A noble used to wear it when he had received it from a sovereign at whose court he had resided as ambassador. The theory of the matter was this, that it was a compensation for the ribbon of the order of that sovereign, which he was not allowed either to solicit or to accept if offered. And, moreover, I see in it a concession made to the pride of foreign courts rather than to the vanity of the administrators of the republic. Down to the time of the last century, Polish nobles only added titles to their names when they were travelling out of their own country. To have assumed the title of count would have been considered as a degradation even among the most remotely allied members of the princely houses of Germany, or amongst the poorest of them. 'M. de Schwerin, . . . who had not been forgiven by the other members of the Schwerin family for having assumed the title of Count, being a prisoner of war in Vienna . . . Their opinion was, that their name alone was worth all the titles in the world.' In Bohemia the barons were so jealous of their title, that when a duke from another country wished to be naturalized, he was obliged to give up his own title, and to adopt that of baron. Only twenty years ago there were noble families in Catalonia who had always refused to bear titles. Even in France, the older barons were not equally desirous of obtaining the honorary distinctions which were distributed by the sovereign at his pleasure. In many of their hearts the proud motto of the De Couci family was engraved—

Je ne suis roy, ny prince aussi,
Je suis le sire de Couci.
I am no king, nor yet a prince,
I am the head of Couci's house.

The name of Sirerie, which was long retained by the owners of fiefs of the first order, proves their proud indifference with regard to any higher titles, which they might so easily have obtained. A feeling of indisputable superiority was the reason why the eldest brother of the king of France bore the simple name of Monsieur."

When M. Salvete has published his second volume, we shall be better able to comprehend his object than at present. What is now confused may then appear clear and intelligible. Meanwhile, we can state that he has produced, thus far, a work which evinces great research and industry, which is rich in anecdotal and illustrative matter, and which proves, in many cases, that when the world was awed, or otherwise moved, it was by the man and not by his name, save as it represented the man. The youthful Cæsar living among the courtisans and ruffians of the Suburra was of small account except to the wiser folk, who shook their heads at his doings; but the same Cæsar, grown older, and clothed with power, was a name, because he was a man whereat no head dared shake whose owner desired to keep it on his shoulders.

The History of the Reign of Terror, 1792-1794 —[*Histoire de la Terreur, 1792-1794, d'après les Documents Authentiques et les Pièces Imprimées*, par M. Mortimer Ternaux. Tomes I. and II.] (Paris, Lévy; London, Nutt.)

THEY who remember the antecedents of M. Ternaux, concluded that he would prove an apologist for the sins and failings of the Royalists. This introductory volume will undeceive them. His view of French society, previous to the "deluge," might have been rendered

by the most advanced of the members of the Mountain. He describes the parliaments, clergy and nobility of the eighteenth century as savagely antagonistic to each other, and at last fighting among masses of ruins of which they alone were the authors. When the men who sent Marie-Antoinette to the scaffold slandered her reputation, they only flung at her mud which had been left them by noble courtiers, who had been the first to assail her with shameful epithets, though the moment before they had kissed her fair hand in homage, or knelt in her "gracious presence" to pray for favour. The French nobility, in short, destroyed Royalty, murdered the Queen, and slew themselves with their own hands. On this point, M. Ternaux has no reserve. If their acts were not purposely directed that way, they tended to no other end; and the great responsibility rests where this liberal but moderate writer has placed it.

He is no less impartial in his treatment of Louis the Sixteenth—a ponderous, gilded weathercock at the summit of the temple of monarchy, offering no harm to any one, perfectly resigned to a condition of tranquillity, but just as ready to turn any way, according to the wind for the moment prevailing. To the Constituent Assembly the author assigns the merit of having, for a moment, saved France;—an Assembly, of which the Royalist minority sat and ridiculed every effort made by the majority to convert the old absolutism of the government into a sound constitutional monarchy. The Royalists disdained to see the King and kingdom rescued by such means, and, adopting others, royalty was daily rendered more vile by the very methods adopted by Royalists to disenthral the monarch. Around him were men who felt disdain for the people; and some courtiers, who affected to feel it, were the regular betrayers of what occurred in the royal apartments to the revolutionary committees, who used the information for the overthrow of the monarchy.

At this time, Republicanism, however, was not so far advanced but that Danton could yet write his name, with safety, in the aristocratic form of D'Anton; and yet, such uncertainty already prevailed that each party looked to the war, threatening on the frontiers, as the means by which each was to find the realization of its dearest hopes. It was a time when men appeared on the stage in strange characters,—like the constitutional priest, Bernard, who introduced his wife and children to the National Assembly, and who, in 1793, rode to the guillotine, under the distinctive number "2,645." There was Alexandre Beauharnais, a simple member of the Assembly, whose grandson was to wear the Imperial purple, sixty years later, by virtue of the ninth constitution sworn to in France, after that which Alexandre and the Assembly were then in course of manufacturing. It is at once startling and amusing to see how M. Ternaux deals with old reputations. To Dumouriez he allows a quick perception of the condition of things, and military ability; but in other respects the would-be Monk of his day is a poor scoundrel, a shabby ex-agent in the secret business of Louis the Fifteenth, a worn-out libertine,—but yet, a man "who had the immortal glory of saving his country from foreign invasion." The philosophic Roland, too, comes upon us, with all his qualities of mind and disposition, in a strange guise—that of a proud, captious man, vain of his virtue and destitute of courage. As for Pétion, he looks like a mountebank; of which character he partook, when striving to please a crowd who hissed his performance; and Lafayette looks rash, acts thoughtlessly,

has as much of the player in him as Collet d'Herbois, and yet with a courageous spirit that might have saved the monarchy, had the monarch but dared to trust that well-meaning Lovelace of the hour. Collet d'Herbois was the most implacable of the anti-monarchical spirits that stepped from before the footlights to pull a monarch from his throne; yet, M. Ternaux quotes the dedication Collet made of a book he had written, in which the author "prostrated himself as a slave at the feet of MONSIEUR, Brother of the King." There is a parallel to this in Santerre, the once Royalist brewer, who ordered the drums to beat at the execution of the King, and who subsequently, compelled by misery, "licked the boots" of Bonaparte, in order to obtain a poor annuity by means of the illustrious hero of Marengo.

For such smaller spirits as this last-named actor and brewer, M. Ternaux offers certain excuse. He is obliged to name and quote them as he does Hébert and his journal, using the apology offered by M. Louis Blanc, on a like occasion, when compelled to cite some passage from "l'ignoble Hébert et son journal ordurier." It is more amusing to make extracts from Anacharsis Clootz, the "Orator of the Human Race," as he styled himself. "I am going to be laconic," said Anacharsis, on one occasion, "because the time is come when we are bound to speak."

When the first popular fête took place—that of Liberty, in which the people regulated the proceedings of the day without the intervention of the authorities, and in their programme indicated a determination to be indifferent to all ruling voices—it was remarked that Liberty was armed with a club. When the Royalists subsequently contrived to get up a fête in honour of Simoneau, the magistrate, who had died in defence of the law, as laid down by the Constituent Assembly, and approved by the King, the figure of Law was armed with a sword;—and this gave offence to the opposite party. Even M. Michelet allows that at the first fête the enfranchised people were a little too lively, and the "fraternity" displayed towards the sisters present was far more tender than called for by the occasion. But the time was then beginning when no man knew what was next to ensue. There was a general struggle to preserve Law and Liberty; but each party would, for the attainment of that end, sanction alone the means they especially advocated. In the terrible fray after the joyous fêtes nearly all the prominent men went down in ruin and death, from the King himself to Jourdain Coupe-Tête, who, chief of executioners one day, was beheaded the next, as a thief and a traitor.

The first great wave of the "deluge" swept over the royal family on that terrible 20th of June, 1792, when the masses made good two points in the fearful game they were playing—their power to penetrate into the Assembly of the Representatives of the Nation with arms in their hands, and the equal power to reach and tarry in the private apartments of royalty, at the Tuileries. M. Ternaux quotes the generous testimony of republican writers, acknowledging that the King bore himself with admirable courage on that eventful day, and the Queen with equal dignity;—the former being unmoved by threat or insult, the latter calm and gentle under the long agony inflicted on her. Neither gave way to their own feelings till the people who had come to "visit Monsieur and Madame Veto" had been persuaded to retire, and then, after the pikes levelled at the King, and unmanly insults, like those of Merlin de Thionville, flung at the Queen, the

two fell in each other's arms, and wept because of the past, the present, and the future.

It is a pleasant thing to see how the gallantry of France was stirred at the action of the populace on that fatal day. Republican and Royalist communities alike addressed the Assembly—the former, indignant that amid the founding of a Republic there should be committed such unworthy acts, so likely to mar the work; and the Royalists, indignant that the new Constitution was too feeble to protect the constitutional King from peril or his Queen from outrage. From that day, however, the monarchy was in ruins. The visit of the 20th of June was only a prelude to the final one of the 10th of August. Neither the friends of the Constitution nor the less advanced Republicans could stem the torrent. Neither could Lafayette overthrow the Jacobins, nor Dumouriez save the King. The prologue is at an end, and the drama of "The Terror" begins.

In the second volume we have the first, not the most terrible, but the longest act of the drama. The volume is entirely occupied with the intrigues, the struggles and the explosion, all resulting in the transferring of the royal family from the Tuileries to the Temple. In the details there is not much that is new; but new aspects are given to some characters, which appear more or less brilliant or repulsive than they have been hitherto made by respective defenders or assailants. The "people" appear less to blame, the "populace" much as they were, the leaders on either side not at all so heroic as romantic history has partially depicted them. Immense strength was given to the republican party by the vaunting and atrocious proclamation of the invading Coburg. After that, farewell peace. Then, the deluge fairly set in. The throne was swept down, the King was pushed daily nearer to the shadow of the guillotine, the Mountain was seen waxing hourly more terrible, and Anarchy was, for the moment, supreme. On a more effective scene this introductory act could not close. They who were as gods and goddesses at Versailles are languishing in dungeons, and the shoeless patriots are rushing gaily to the frontiers.

Here M. Ternaux leaves his readers for awhile. Hitherto all we have perused is but as a preface to the work that is to come; but it is a satisfactory sample of what we may expect, for the author, without being a republican, can afford to be just to those who profess republican principles. Even when the Abbé Grégoire takes the oath to the constitution which had overthrown the Church, and expresses at the same time respect for the Roman Catholic Religion, and a desire for its continuance, M. Ternaux gives him credit for sincerity, and makes a wide distinction between the Abbé and some of his fellow churchmen. "Of his sincerity," says M. Ternaux, "the Abbé Grégoire gave splendid proof three years later, when he refused, in spite of the murmurs of the Convention and the menaces of the Jacobin tribunes, to associate himself in the disgraceful saturnalia of Gobel and other upholders of the worship of the Goddess of Reason."

The Appendix to these volumes is extensive and interesting. There is a record by Pétion himself of the occurrences attending the return of the Royal family from Varennes, when Pétion and Barnave attended as Commissioners from the Convention. In general details, this record adds little to what is already known. In some minute details it approaches to the "nasty." It exhibits the King in his usual stolid indifference. The Queen is represented as asserting that there had been no intention of a flight beyond the frontier, but simply a promenade in that

direction, which the King had a right to make if he chose. Her resolution to "display character to the end" is strongly marked; and Pétion, who sat next to Madame Elisabeth, in the crowded and dusty carriage, adds, with an incredible and impudent audacity, that the Princess made gallant advances to him, by which, unfortunately, he could not profit. The children slept, talked or wept,—and their notable and brave little governess, Madame de Tourzel, boldly interrupted the accusations of the Commissioners and the excuses of the Royal prisoners, by declaring that, for her part, she had only done her duty; and were the thing to be done all over again, she (stout-hearted little woman!) was ready to act her part in it anew. It is satisfactory to think that this true woman survived the terrible storm in which so many around her suffered shipwreck.

John Rogers: the Compiler of the First Authorized English Bible; the Pioneer of the English Reformation, and its First Martyr. Embracing a Genealogical Account of his Family, Biographical Sketches of some of his Principal Descendants, his own Writings, &c. By Joseph Lemuel Chester. (Longman & Co.)

In this country, let a man grow rich as merchant, banker, lawyer, physician, soap-boiler, tallow-melter or what not, and he will contribute to the state the price of armorial bearings. He must, of course, have a seal for his letters; and what would be the use to his wife and daughters of a carriage that had neither crest nor motto? Indeed, we doubt whether a coach-maker could be found in Long Acre who would not blush to supply such an article. But here the matter ends with us. Armorial bearings, crest and motto we must have—the last in questionable Latin, and not always rightly spelt; and so we go to a cunning man who advertises "arms found," and for a given sum get what we want. In general, we trouble ourselves no further. In the States of America, however, it is far otherwise. There every Smith, Brown and Jones, not content with having his "arms found," is agitated with an irrepressible frenzy to trace his ancestors to the remotest period, if not so far back as the Slys, to "Richard Conqueror," still at least to some distinguished family or person in the old country. And not only so, but they must print and circulate books on the subject, the number of which during the last few years has become formidable. Considering that in the State of Massachusetts alone—on the authority of a published work—there are at least two thousand persons, with fortunes ranging from fifty thousand to more than a million dollars a-piece, each of whom must, of course, have his pedigree traced and printed, a copy of which is duly presented to the British Museum, we tremble to think of the space that such works will necessarily occupy on the national shelves before the end of the century.

Knowing this rage for pedigree-hunting, we nevertheless have been taken a-back by the statement in the volume before us, that there are some thousands of persons in the New England States who firmly believe themselves to be the descendants of John Rogers, the first Martyr of the Reformation under the Marian persecution. Surely the name of Rogers is not so strange but that some of these might have entertained a reasonable misgiving as to this identical John Rogers. Among these thousands was Mr. J. L. Chester, who actually came over to this country for the purpose of investigating his own claim to the honour of such a descent. The result has been twofold: first, to convince him,

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after thorough and minute investigation, that for himself such a claim is without foundation; and secondly, that historical justice had not been done to the memory of the illustrious martyr, of whom nothing has been hitherto known beyond the meagre account given in Foxe's 'Acts and Monuments.' Failing thus in his original object, but believing that some additional facts that he had been fortunate enough to discover in the life of Rogers would prove acceptable to the public, Mr. Chester undertook the present biography; and as it is one in the compiling of which the writer has taken honest pains, we feel happy to report favourably of its execution.

A few objections, however, we have to make. And first, with respect to the title-page itself. In this Rogers is styled the Pioneer of the English Reformation, as if he were pre-eminently so. But surely there were brave men before him. Not to go so far back as Wycliffe, there were Tyndale, Cramer, Latimer, Coverdale, and many others, contemporaries of Rogers, but known in the character of reformers much earlier than he was. Neither was he the first Martyr of the Reformation, for both Anne Askew, Dr. Barnes and John Frith, in England, and the still more illustrious William Tyndale at Vilvorde, not to mention others, passed through the fire many years before him, in testimony of their adherence to the doctrines of the Reformation. Mr. Chester, knowing this, should have taken greater pains in the construction of his title-page, which we would amend as follows:—"One of the Pioneers of the Reformation, and its first Martyr under the Marian persecution." Leaving the title-page and coming to the preface, we find Mr. Chester possessed by the idea that it was all of malice prepense in former writers not to have left behind them a fuller memorial of Rogers, and that they thrust him aside to give prominence to men who filled higher official positions, though vastly inferior to him in ability, godliness and service. Now this is sheer nonsense, as every one acquainted with the historians of the Reformation must be aware. But in the following sentence we have nonsense coupled with vulgarity:—"Plain John Rogers," says our author, "could be easily elbowed out of the works of historians, who would have described the length of his nails, and enumerated the hairs of his beard, if, as in other cases in his times, he had fortunately tumbled into a bishopric." Let us assure Mr. Chester that at no time in the history of this country have bishops been held in such inordinate reverence as he wishes to represent. Wycliffe was no bishop, neither was Tyndale, nor Bradford the martyr, nor the "judicious" Hooker, nor the "pious" George Herbert, nor Dr. Donne, nor Robert South, with a host besides of right worthy divines, ancient and modern, whom we value no whit the less because they never exercised episcopal functions. But this is a matter that scarcely requires argument; and so we pass on, to give a brief sketch of the life of Rogers, noticing by the way those additional facts with respect to him which Mr. Chester has been fortunate enough to discover.

John Rogers was born about the year 1500, probably in the little village or hamlet of Deritend, once a suburb of, but now contained in the town of Birmingham. Of his ancestry we know nothing with certainty, scarcely indeed even the names of his father and mother, which, however, have been set down with some likelihood as John Rogers and Margery Wyatt. "The first authentic information concerning him is, that he was educated at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where he took the degree of Bachelor of Arts, in 1525. Lewis also says,

that he was chosen from thence, during the same year, to the Cardinal's College, at Oxford, of which he was made a junior canon." Foxe tells us that "he resided long at Cambridge, attentively and diligently engaged in the honourable pursuit of learning," which conflicts rather with the statement in Lewis, and then mentions that he was "at the length" chosen by the Company of Merchant Adventurers to be their chaplain at Antwerp. Of his scholarship, while at the University, there is no evidence beyond the statement of Foxe; but as Greek was at the time very successfully cultivated at Cambridge, it is highly probable that Rogers distinguished himself in that branch of learning. Mr. Chester does not allude to this; but, at all events, it must have been for his learning that he was sought out by Wolsey for his new college at Oxford, although there is no proof of his ever having gone there. "There is good reason," says our author, "for believing that before he went to Antwerp, he officiated for nearly two years as rector of the Church of Holy Trinity, or Trinity the Less, in the City of London." This was between 1532 and 1534, and it was towards the end of the latter year, in all probability, that he undertook the office of chaplain at Antwerp. With respect to his religious views up to this time we are left very much in the dark. Foxe's account is as follows:—"It chanced him there to fall in company with that worthy martyr of God, William Tyndale, and with Myles Coverdale, which, both for the hatred they bare to popish idolatry, and for the love they bare toward true religion, had forsaken their native country. In conferring with them on the Scriptures, he came to great knowledge in the Gospel of God, inasmuch that he cast off the heavy yoke of popery, perceiving it to be impure and filthy idolatry, and joined himself with them two in that painful and most profitable labour of translating the Bible into the English tongue, which is entitled 'The Translation of Thomas Matthew.'" Now there may be truth in this, but we know there is also fable, for Coverdale, as is proved by the researches of the late Mr. Anderson, was never associated with Tyndale in his translation of the Scriptures. On the contrary, he laboured diligently here, in England, upon another translation, which he produced under the auspices of Cromwell at the very time that it is alleged he was assisting Tyndale at Antwerp. This translation, it is now pretty generally agreed, was printed by Froben at Zurich. It bears the date of 1535, the same year in which Tyndale was arrested and lodged in the castle of Vilvorde on a charge of heresy. There is no doubt, however, that before this time Rogers had become intimately acquainted with Tyndale, and that whatever may have been his religious views previously, they now became decidedly Protestant. Tyndale before his arrest had nearly completed the translation of the Bible into English, the great work of his life. His New Testament had already been printed in several editions, and was in the hands of thousands of persons in England. There had been an edition likewise of the Pentateuch and the Book of Jonah. Still much must have remained to be done both in the way of translation and revision with the remainder, and it was fortunate therefore that his manuscripts now came into the hands of Rogers, who, from knowing the mind of his master upon the subject and from his own abilities, was perhaps the best qualified of any that could be found to complete the task. Rogers also may have found means to communicate upon the subject with Tyndale, although of this we have no evidence. What we do know is that Coverdale's version soon

after its appearance was found to be, commercially speaking, a failure. The Court withheld its patronage from it, and among the people it met with but little favour. What the reasons for this may have been we shall not stop to inquire, but hasten to mention that not long after Tyndale's arrest Grafton and Whitchurch, two enterprising London printers, got to know the secret of his manuscripts being in existence and available for a new translation, and that they forthwith went to Antwerp and struck a bargain with the persons interested in them for their speedy publication. Grafton, it is said, embarked in it the whole of his fortune, amounting to about 500*l.*, a large sum at that day, and to Rogers was entrusted the task of revising and correcting the whole as it passed through the press. This herculean task he completed in the space of about two years, and so far as we know without any assistance. The work was printed in folio size, most probably at Antwerp, with the following title, 'The Byble, which is all the Holy Scripture: in which are contained the Olde and Newe Testament, truly and purely translated into Englysh, by Thomas Matthew. mccccxvii.' In July of the same year copies had found their way to England, and on the 4th of August Cramer wrote to Cromwell commending the translation in glowing terms, and asking him to present a copy to the King. In the course of his letter he observes that there is no chance of the Bishops being able to produce a better translation, at least "till a day after Doomsday." With this request Cromwell immediately complied; and not only so, but obtained the King's sanction to have it bought and read within this realm. For this service Cramer wrote back to the minister thanking him most heartily, and "assuring your lordship for the contentacion of my mynde, you haue shewed me more pleasor herin than yf you hadd giuen me a thowsande pownde." Of this Bible, which is still the basis of our authorized version, 1,500 copies were sold within less than two years; and in 1539 another and much finer edition of it was printed at Paris, through the enterprise of the same publishers.

In this second edition Rogers had no share, the superintendence of it being entrusted to Coverdale, probably at the instigation of his patron, Cromwell. But by this time Rogers had removed from Antwerp to Wittenberg, carrying with him to that Protestant town his newly-married wife, Adriana de Weyden, *alias* Pratt, an Antwerp lady whom he married in 1537, soon after the publication of his Bible. At Wittenberg he enjoyed the intimacy of Luther and Melancthon, became a proficient in the German language and took charge of a congregation. Of the course of his life while resident in this place no traces beyond these have been discovered, and we know nothing further of him until his return to England after the death of the king in 1547.

"The accession of Edward the Sixth to the throne of England, January 28th, 1547, was the beginning of a new era in the history of the country, and especially of the Church, and was the welcome signal heralding the safety of return to many who had absented themselves, from religious motives, during the latter part of the reign of Henry the Eighth." At what time Rogers returned is not quite clear, but on the 1st of August, 1548, he published his translation of Melancthon's 'Weighing of the Interim,' dating the Preface "at London, in Edward Whitechurch's house," where he appears to have been then residing. On the 10th of May he was presented to the Rectory of St. Margaret Moyses and the Vicarage of St. Sepulchre, both in London. In the following

year he received further promotion by being raised to the Prebendal Stall of St. Pancras, with which was associated the Rectory of Chigwell, though from the latter he derived no immediate income. Subsequently, he was chosen by the Dean and Chapter to the office of Divinity Lecturer in St. Paul's. Such is the list of ecclesiastical appointments held by Rogers, one of which, namely, the Rectory of St. Margaret Moyses, he afterwards resigned. The value of them all combined, we may, however, conclude, was not great, for his diocesan, Ridley, always speaks of him as being a poor man. His services to the Church at this time are spoken of with high approval by Ridley and others. But once or twice he appears to have got into some trouble with the authorities from his leaning to nonconformity, principally in the matter of forms and ceremonies, including that of the distinctive dress enjoined by both Parliament and Convocation to be worn by the regular clergy. It would be well for his memory if no more serious charge could be brought against him than this. But he has been accused of heartlessly rejecting an appeal made to him to intercede for the life of the unfortunate Joan Bocher, commonly called Joan of Kent, who was burnt at the stake for heresy on the 2nd of May, 1550. Foxe informs us that Rogers, upon being appealed to upon the subject by an intimate friend, declared it as his opinion that she deserved to be put to death; while as to the pain of being burnt alive, it was the least agonizing kind of death. "The other, immediately on hearing this speech of the man, which savoured so little of care and regard for the agonies of the unfortunate wretch, in a great passion of spirit, smote Rogers's hand, which he had been grasping closely, and said—'Well, perchance you may yet find that you, yourself, shall have your hands full of this so gentle fire.'" This story, if true,—and Mr. Chester acknowledges that he cannot quite refute it, while he seeks to palliate the conduct of Rogers by a commonplace reference to the general want of Christian charity at the time,—leaves a deep stain upon the character of this otherwise distinguished father of the English Church.

Rogers, when he thus spoke, doubtless looked forward to a long and prosperous reign for the young Protestant King, who—alas for the hopes of the Reformers!—died on the 6th of July, 1553. Then came the short-lived reign, if such it can be called, of the Lady Jane, when Ridley preached a sermon at Paul's Cross, loudly extolling her virtues, and denouncing the Princess Mary, by comparison, as a determined enemy of Protestantism, and an illegitimate claimant to the Crown. This, of course, sealed his doom when Mary became firmly seated on the throne. On the 16th of July, the next Sunday after Ridley's sermon, Rogers preached at the same place, but wisely avoided all political allusions, taking his text from the Gospel of the day. On the following day Mary was in her turn proclaimed Queen of England; and not long afterwards,—namely, on the 6th of August,—Rogers again preached at Paul's Cross, by order, it seems, of the Council, and doubtless with the intention of obliging him to define his position with respect to the new order of things about to be introduced. If so, he was not slow to accept the challenge, though well knowing the danger he incurred. Upon this occasion he delivered, as Foxe says, "a most godly and vehement sermon, avowing and confirming such true doctrine as he and others had there taught in King Edward's days; exhorting the people constantly to remain in the same, and to beware of all pestilent popery, idolatry and superstition. This was his last sermon;

and the same Council that ordered him to deliver it, now summoned him to account for its language and character, which he did by pleading that the Protestant religion was still recognized and protected by the law of the land. This was so plain, that the Council dismissed him until a more convenient opportunity. On the 16th of August, however, he was again arraigned before the Council, in the Tower, when the following minute was the result:—"John Rogers, alias Matthew, a seditious preacher, ordered by the Lords of the Council to keep himself as prisoner in his house at Paul's, without conference of any person other than such as are daily with him in his household, until such time as he hath contrary commandment." With this order Rogers strictly complied, continuing in this quasi-confinement for nearly six months; not, however, without attempts being made by his wife and some of his friends to procure his enlargement. The former, accompanied by eight female friends, one day in the Christmas week paid a formal visit to Gardiner, now Lord Chancellor, to intercede for him, but to no effect. That prelate, on the contrary, on the 27th of January following, at the instigation of Bonner,—who professed that he could not endure his near neighbourhood at Paul's with such a heretic as Rogers,—now ordered the latter into strict confinement at Newgate, there to remain until further proceedings should be taken against him. While in Newgate, the sufferings and privations of the martyr were very great; and yet another year had to elapse before he was put upon his trial for heresy, under the revived Acts against Lollardism originally passed in the reigns of Richard the Second, Henry the Fourth and Henry the Fifth. It was not until the 22nd of January, 1555, that Rogers, in company with ten others, was summoned to appear before Gardiner and the Privy Council, and undergo examination as to their tenets under these Acts. Rogers himself wrote an account of his examination upon this occasion, of which Mr. Chester has been fortunate enough to discover an exact transcript among the Lansdowne MSS. in the British Museum. It supplies some important omissions in the account given by Foxe, although evidently the same document as that used by the martyrologist, who, however, thought a mere paraphrase of it sufficient, in which he has frequently distorted the principal points at issue between Rogers and his accusers. Into the nature of this examination, however, we have not space to enter. The result was, that Rogers was remanded to his cell, and on the 28th was again summoned to appear before a commission issued by Cardinal Pole to try all persons obnoxious to the new laws against heresy. This commission sat on the very day that it was instituted, and was presided over by Gardiner, "early enough to admit of the examination of three of the accused parties, viz., Rogers, Hooper and Cardmaker." Many of the new Bishops, including, of course, Bonner, and several of the nobility and others, were present; but Gardiner, as President, chiefly conducted the examination. He commenced by requiring Rogers to state absolutely whether he would return to the Romish Church. "There was no prevarication in his reply, but he promptly and distinctly, and, as he says, utterly refused to receive the mercy offered by that anti-Christian Church, because, in order to qualify himself for it, he must yield his assent to error and false doctrine; but he still declared his willingness and ability to prove that he had never taught any but true Catholic doctrines, and promised to appeal only to Scripture and the authority of the Fathers of the Catholic Church." A long

discussion ensued; but with such judges the result was easily to be anticipated. Rogers was condemned, and sentenced to die the death of a heretic.

The 4th of February, 1555, was the day fixed for Rogers's execution; on which occasion he was roused up hastily from his slumbers early in the morning, and hurried away, without partaking even of his morning meal, to undergo the process of degradation. This was performed by Bonner himself, in the chapel of Newgate. At the conclusion of it, Rogers asked from this brutal persecutor a single boon—"only that I may talk a few words with my wife before my burning." This, however, was denied him; and between nine and ten o'clock he was conducted, by a formidable array of armed men, headed by the sheriffs, to the stake at Smithfield.

"All writers [says Mr. Chester], both Protestant and Romish, unite in bearing testimony to the wonderful patience and constancy—nay, even cheerfulness—with which he met his fearful doom. The spectators were more numerous than upon any subsequent occasion; and although he was not permitted to speak much to them, he did succeed in exhorting them to remain true to the faith which he had taught and many of them had embraced, and in defence of which he had not only been content to suffer all that he had already endured, but now gladly resigned his life in this cruel manner, as his final testimony in its behalf. After this, the fires were lighted; and as they began to take effect upon him, he passed his hands through the flames, rubbing them as if in the act of washing, as though he were thus ridding himself of the last impurities of earth; and then lifting them up towards heaven, he held them in that position until consciousness ceased, and his soul took its flight towards its eternal home."

With this extract we take our leave of Mr. Chester's work.

A Handybook of Social Intercourse. Political Economy for the Million. By William B. Chorley. (Longman & Co.)

WRITERS of handybooks for "the million" are not expected to be great reformers in the field of science; but Mr. W. B. Chorley aspires not only to introduce mere novices to the truths of Political Economy with "no more preparation or study than is required for any sustained effort of the mind," but also to set grave professors and learned economists right upon the fundamental principles of their faith. We have not found in Mr. Chorley's pages any allusion to previous writers on this subject—to Smith, to Say or Ricardo, to Storch, Sismondi, Senior, Chevalier and J. S. Mill; but as he informs us that the whole subject "requires to be rewritten and brought down to the state of things of the present day," we must assume that even the latest authorities, including Mr. Mill's fifth edition of his famous work, published within the present year, appear to him to fall lamentably short of the requirements of the age. This deficiency it is his object to supply—first, by the present handybook, and secondly, by a work to appear "at a future time if this introduction answers the desired purpose."

We confess that, notwithstanding these promises, we have not been disappointed at finding Mr. Chorley's book remarkable chiefly for its commonplace and timid character. It informs "the million" (as Mr. McCulloch once did) that the law of primogeniture is far superior to all outlandish customs of dealing with land, chiefly because it starves younger sons into superhuman efforts to improve their condition: it remarks that it is above all things to be desired that an agreement, "with good feeling on both sides," should exist between masters and men; that "people depending for their support upon an income

should be content with the rate of interest which is positively safe"; that "extravagance of any kind would, if carried far enough, bring any country to poverty"; that "the slothful, the vicious and the profligate are unhappily found in all ranks amongst us in far too large a proportion," &c.: but we have looked in vain, in Mr. Chorley's pages, for anything like an original view. Even his chief charge against the economists that they use popular terms in a more restricted sense than is generally attached to them, and that they thus give rise to misconceptions in the minds of the unlearned, is as old as the science, and is not denied by the economists themselves. That it is easier to perceive this evil than to find a remedy, may be inferred from Mr. Chorley's own example. Take the great question of the definition of "rent," which, in the Ricardian theory, means the price paid for "the inherent and indestructible powers of the soil"—a definition which Mr. J. S. Mill has wisely enlarged to include the powers of the soil whether originally natural or not. Mr. Chorley remarks, that this definition "was necessary while the Corn Laws were in force," as "it was then necessary to show clearly how the exclusion of foreign land from competition operated upon the extent of cultivation at home,"—a reason which we will undertake to say will not be found hinted at in the pages of Sir Edward West, or Mr. Malthus or Mr. Ricardo. He thinks it enough to object to this doctrine, that in practice a portion of the rent is for the use of the soil, another for the farm buildings, &c., and that consequently the Ricardian definition "does not apply to the actual condition of English farming." Great discoveries are frequently very simple when made; but Mr. Chorley may rest assured that triumphs over such writers as Mr. Ricardo are not to be won at this easy rate. Neither Ricardo nor any of his followers ever doubted that they used the term "rent" in a restricted sense. Mr. Chorley extends it to mean the whole payment for hire of a farm. But why of a farm? The unsentimental speak of the rent of a shop, of a house, of a lodging, of a mine, of a fishery, and even of a patent-right. If it be wrong to use a popular term in any narrower sense than its popular meaning, Mr. Chorley must in his turn be condemned. The fact is, that the authors of what is called the theory of rent in political economy deemed it necessary to fix the mind of the student upon the law of diminishing fertility of land, and the limited quantity of best soils, and for this purpose they stood in need of a term which should indicate the hire of the soil itself and nothing else. But the consequences of employing the term "rent" in a wider sense, which they foresaw, do not disturb the easy confidence of Mr. Chorley, who gets over all difficulties of the kind by taking no notice of them. When we add, that he considers that all changes in the money market produce wide and general effects on all prices; that in the same page he informs the reader that in the question of wages "all depends upon supply and demand," and remarks that the workman's complaint that he cannot get his "fair share," and that "the masters cut down wages and make enormous fortunes out of their workmen's misery, may sometimes be true, and a sad case it is;" and that he lays it down as a principle, that where the currency is "partly of silver and partly of gold" there is "always a charge for procuring gold money when required,"—little doubt will perhaps remain in the mind of any one who has given attention to this subject of the true value of Mr. Chorley's claims to the honour of having remodelled the science of political economy.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Constitutiones Apostolorum. P. A. de Lagarde editit. (Williams & Norgate.)—What is it that is most likely to bring the most opposite men into thought together? Answer, a book. We are reminded of Francis Turrianus, the first editor of the *Constitutiones*, who fought at the Council of Trent against the cup being given to the laity. We are also reminded of old William Whiston, who, all through his long life, stood up for these same *Constitutiones* as of authority equal to the Gospels. We have rather understated him: he says, "that the Apostolical *Constitutiones* are the most sacred of the Canonical books of the New Testament." We need hardly tell our readers that very few have been of this opinion. In truth, few questions are better settled than this, that what we have here under the name of Apostolical *Constitutiones* must have been collected at a date not earlier than the end of the fourth century. Those who wish to see the argument must consult Lardner. Write it who might, we have here an edition of the work, in Greek alone, and with various readings, but with neither index nor contents. The only index given is one of passages of the Old and New Testaments, including the Apocrypha, with references to the places in which they are quoted or alluded to. This gives a certain sort of power of extraction. For instance, wishing to know whether anything is said about the vexed question of marriage with a wife's sister, we looked to see if Leviticus xviii. 18 stood in the list of texts. Not finding it there, we concluded that the work is silent on this point. Should we be wrong, the editor has done nothing better for us. The work is printed by Teubner, at Leipzig: and the editor and printer seem to have acquitted themselves well. The readings are from four manuscripts, and from the *editio princeps* of Turrianus. Another manuscript had been heard of; and we feel back in the middle ages when we hear that it was supposed to be "Middlehillie apud Thomam Philippium." But it could not be ascertained whether Sir Thomas Phillips possesses such a manuscript or not. When the editor speaks of works 'à Curetone editis,' we feel inclined to ask why Mr. Cureton is to be treated to a declension different from that of Newton or Miltonus? There is not any other remark to make except this. We are getting into a very controversial time of the world, and citations begin to be hurled about. Every book which is rescued from the folio kingdom, and made of easier access, becomes a dangerous book to use carelessly or unfairly. We remember when, all of a sudden, Bede made his appearance on the stage. Everybody seemed to know Bede: the country clergyman quoted his Bede in the *Times*. The secret was, that an edition of Bede had been published. If the same thing should happen with the Clementine *Constitutiones*, as they are sometimes called, our readers will be in that secret.

Lectures on the History of Moral Philosophy. By W. Whewell, D.D. (Cambridge, Deighton & Co.)—This is a new edition, with fourteen additional lectures. The additions are on morals in the hands of Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, the Roman Law, St. Augustine, the Schoolmen, Samuel Clarke and S. T. Coleridge. The historical course is now, we suppose, complete; and the candidates for the *Moral Tripos*, as it is called, have a work which may guide them in selecting their reading on this subject. Dr. Whewell and Archdeacon Hare—then neither Doctor nor Archdeacon—were the first who, about 1837, gave public opposition to the doctrines of Paley, which were then recommended by University authority. It was indeed a low state of things in which Paley was the only guide on the subject. The books recommended by the 'Board of Moral Science Studies' are now Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, Clarke, Butler, Dugald Stewart, Paley, Whewell, Kant, Fichte.

On Eccentric and Centric Force: a New Theory of Projection. By H. F. A. Pratt, M.D. (Churchill.)—We mention these books one after another, to give our readers a notion of what is going on. Some time ago, we noticed a work of Dr. Pratt on cosmogony. The present work upsets Newton: and not him only, but Archimedes also. Now as Dr.

Pratt destroys Newton by a certain kind of attempt at mathematical argument, though without symbols, the following specimen of his mathematical power will dispense us from giving any account of his high speculations. Having discovered, by a process we shall not describe, but a very easy one, that the circle is three diameters and one-fifth in circumference, whence, as he truly infers, the area is to that of the containing square as 4 to 5, he proceeds to show that this is also the ratio of the sphere to the containing cylinder, as follows:—"Since the cylinder is theoretically formed by causing the circumscribing square to revolve round an axis that corresponds with the diameter of its inscribed circle parallel to its side, and since the circumscribing square contains one-fourth part more than its inscribed circle, it is evident that at every point of this revolution a plane through the central axis will give the same proportionate relations, which hence are continuous throughout the revolution, so that the inscribed sphere must hold the same relation to its circumscribing cylinder that the inscribed circle does to its circumscribing square." Here are some ingenuity and some clearness of expression: the above will satisfy any one who knows the subject, first, that Dr. Pratt could have learnt mathematics; secondly, that he has not.

Memorials of John Venning, Esq., with numerous Notices from his Manuscripts relative to the Imperial Family of Russia. By Thulia S. Henderson. (Knight & Son.)—Mr. Venning was one of two brothers for many years settled as merchants in the capital of Russia, and who largely occupied themselves in the works of beneficence and philanthropy, which also had a foremost place in the attention of the then reigning sovereign, the Emperor Alexander, and of others of his family. There must have been somewhat of mysticism in the creeds and councils of a sovereign who could, ever so slightly, be ruled by the oracles of Madame de Krudener,—or who could allow William Allen, the Quaker missionary, to leave his closet, bringing home to England the impression, "He is one of us." But if there was some toying with what may be called the sentimentalities of religious speculation, there can be no question that active practical measures for the amelioration of the state of the prisoner, the pauper and the sick were earnestly studied and followed out by the Russian Court. In these the Vennings were employed as almoners and inspectors; and to the suggestions and to the superintendence of the Venning who is the subject of this biography may be traced the removal of many of the abominations which had naturally grown and festered during the reign of such a brute as the Emperor Paul: a ruler whose insane despotism naturally engendered secret corruption, neglect and cruelty among subordinate officers, and ignorant demoralization among the wretched and oppressed natives of his country. The book, as one containing many interesting traits and anecdotes concerning works of mercy, may be ranged on the shelf of the library which contains the Life of Elizabeth Fry and the Journals of William Allen. The writer, however, is not altogether clear of a tone of adulation when high personages are mentioned; and this is distasteful in a record of deeds of charity, the very spirit of which is self-abnegation and meekness without affectation. After many years of arduous labour in Russia, when his plans appeared to be placed on a permanent basis, and his energy began to fail him, Mr. Venning returned to his own country, to enjoy a more tranquil autumn of life and a respected age.

Loves of a Page—[Amours d'un Page]. (Barthés & Lowell.)—M. Ollivier writes a few ballads, in the spirit of Thomas Little; that is to say, a spirit not creditable to the writer, and not profitable to the reader. The "bard," with an affectation of candour, places at the head of his title-page the words, "Ce que vierge ne doit lire." There is nothing to tempt youth of either sex that respects itself. We are only sorry to believe that the author thinks otherwise, and that a man, not without talent and grace of expression, should not have devoted them to better purpose.

Poems from the German. By Richard Garnett. (Bell & Daldy.)—Whether Mr. Garnett has made these poems "all out of his own head," as children

say, or whether he has taken them from the German, it is to be feared English readers will feel little gratitude. The amount of meaning is small, and the form in which that little is given is scarcely to be called poetry. Take a verse from the 'Huntsman's Song,' for example:—

With ready gun and heavy heart
O'er hill and dale I rove;
And ever in my sight thou art
Sweet vision of my love!

Yet when I muse upon thee, lo!
A deep and blissful boon
Comes purely o'er my breast, as though
I look'd into the moon.

It is dubious whether the average of the poems in the volume would be good enough to illustrate a second-rate Valentine.

Sunsets and Sunshine; or, Varied Aspects of Life. By Erskine Neale, M.A. (Longman & Co.).—Mr. Neale has for a long time been going from bad to worse; but as he cannot possibly write a more contemptible book than this, we hope we may rejoice that the series is closed, and that if the writer take pen in hand again, he will reform his style, spirit, matter and manner altogether—drop the phraseology of religious "cant," cease to joke out of mere forgetfulness that he has just used such phraseology, and be honest towards the writers from whom he borrows now without acknowledgment.

The Year of Delusion: a Review of "the Year of Grace." By the Rev. Isaac Nelson.—While they were at their height the grotesque extravagances of the Revivalists were so justly appreciated by the more intelligent and educated sections of society, that it is labour without an adequate object to establish by grave and deliberate arguments that "the great religious movement" was much more a manifestation of physical irritability than spiritual fervour. The Rev. Isaac Nelson is an honest and sensible writer, and his book is a complete exposure of the absurdities and misrepresentations of the ridiculous publication to which it directs attention; but the worthy minister might easily have found a task on which his energies would have been expended to better purpose. The boisterous songs of the tumultuous enthusiasts have died away in a silence that teaches more forcibly than words can do the nature of the storm that preceded it.

A Handbook of the History of the United States: including the Discovery and European Settlement, the Colonial Period, the War of Independence, the Constitution, and History to the Present Time. By Hugo Reid. (Griffith & Farran).—Of the many handbooks on American history that have come under our notice during the last two years, Mr. Hugo Reid's is by no means the most commendable. Typographical errors excepted, it is sufficiently accurate; but it is meagre and superficial, omitting much for which purchasers of a volume on the United States may at the present crisis reasonably look, and containing nothing of which ordinary newspaper-readers are ignorant. The sketch has, however, the merit of brevity.

An Essay on the Age and Antiquity of the Book of Nabathean Agriculture. By M. Ernest Renan. (Trübner & Co.).—The question here stated and discussed is, whether the work known as the Book of Nabathean Agriculture is of the antiquity which Dr. Daniel Chwolson, Professor of Hebrew in the University of St. Petersburg, attributes to it. About the year 900 of our era, a man, tracing himself to a Babylonian origin, and understanding the Babylonian language, became possessed of a collection of Babylonian writings. He, the Chaldean Ibn Wahshiya-al-Kasani, pored over them, marvelled at their wisdom, and translated them into Arabic. Hence, our Arabic versions of the Book of Nabathean Agriculture. It was known to Thomas Aquinas and to Moses Maimonides. Prof. Chwolson founds upon it a belief that the Babylonians possessed an extensive literature of high order in the time of Nebuchadnezzar or of the earlier Nabonassar, and that in Babylon there existed an advanced state of science at a time when Grecian literature and science were in their infancy. These positions M. Ernest Renan assails. He undertakes to demonstrate that the author was acquainted with Greek science, with the institutions

of more advanced Persia, and with the Jewish legends in their apocryphal and legendary form; and his argument, with the evidence accompanying it, seems unanswerable, though the St. Petersburg Professor may yet have to offer a reply. The point in dispute is of no small interest, as bearing on the history of the Bible. Prof. Chwolson admits that, if the date he fixes be the correct one, we must suppose three thousand years of culture to have elapsed before his author flourished. Certainly, however, his method of explaining away the references to Greek, Persian and Jew is arbitrary; but M. Renan's Essay must be closely studied by those who would assess at its real value the criticism upon Prof. Chwolson's theory: and all who have any real interest in the monuments of literature, especially of that literature whose remoter lights tremble in the dawn of history, will assuredly be curious to learn how the French Professor, with perfect courtesy, and in a tournament of generous erudition, tilts against the Russian commentator.

Theta and his Thorns.—We invent this title to represent two pages printed on a sheet of letter-paper, with a manuscript addition, which tells us that Theta does not publish at large, because his work would only interest the "Princes of the intellectual kingdom," and because it would hardly be understood. We almost hope we are Princes of this kingdom, for we do understand it: we do not quite admit it. We are told that "the peoples then who worshipped the God *Thorn*, who appeared to Adam in the garden of Eden, who told Abraham to sacrifice the ram caught in a thorny thicket (*Acanthion*, Greek; *Spinetum*, Latin), who appeared in the thorny bush of Sinai, who delivered the law (*Thor*) on Mount Sinai (*Sench*, a thorn-bush), who instructed Moses to make an ark of Shittim (*Acacia*, a thorn) wood, who came down to earth, and was crowned with thorns, and nailed with thorns (*Shamar*, a nail), are the lost tribes of Israel, the whole of the European and early American nations, thus realizing His promise to Abraham..... The descendants of the Princely Pontiffs who kept alive *Thorn* worship, constitute the ancient aristocracy of the European nations:—represented in England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales, by the names of Seymour, Coats, Thorn, Mayo, Mayhew, Price, Stafford, Lindsay, Tudor, Hay, Plantagenet, Birch, Ash, Hesse, &c." We have heard this notion before, so far as the Israelite origin of at least the Northern nations. A work of the school of Lieut. Brothers, which came to its sixth edition in 1835, makes the same statement, and adds that certain of the emigrating Israelites, who came through Poland with sacks on their backs, got the name of *Saxons*. These deep things are not for weekly critics; they require at least a quarter: nay, we are not sure they ought not to be referred to the Annual Register. We are not surprised that the actual existence among us of the tribe of Judah, with the clearest proof of descent which exists, should induce speculators to look for—and of course to find—all the rest.

Two American publications on language have reached us. The first, *Latin Pronunciation and the Latin Alphabet*, by Dr. L. Tafel and Prof. R. L. Tafel, A.M. (Williams & Norgate), is intended to serve the purpose of making known to English readers the results of Prof. Corssen's researches, as stated in his prize essay 'On the Pronunciation, Vowel System, and Accentuation of the Latin Language.' If we are not mistaken, an English translation of that essay has already appeared, so that there would seem little need of any such exposition as this. The authors at the close pass in review the various modes of pronouncing Latin, and come to the conclusion that the Continental method of pronouncing the vowels is identical with that of the ancient Romans, and ought therefore to be generally adopted. As to the diphthongs and consonants, they think the Continental method requires certain modifications. We do not anticipate the universal adoption of their recommendations in our time. The second work, entitled *Investigations into the Laws of English Orthography and Pronunciation*, by Prof. R. L. Tafel, A.M. (Williams & Norgate), comes out under the sanction of the American Philosophical Society. It is to be published in twelve numbers, forming three volumes. The first number, which appears to comprise the first

of four parts, treats of the elementary sounds of language in general and the English language in particular. The author makes frequent use of the work of Dr. E. Brücke, of Vienna, on the principles of phonology, whom he regards as the highest authority on the physiology of language. He considers that the laws which regulate the interchange of vowels and consonants cannot be understood or explained without reference to the organic conditions on which the various sounds depend, and hence his discussions assume more of a physiological than a philological character. In the second part he promises to give a history of the English language, with an account of various elements composing it; the third is to be devoted to an investigation of the laws of English accentuation; and the fourth, to a statement of the laws of English orthography and pronunciation.

Mr. W. McDowall has prepared an edition of *Virgil: with Vocabulary, Notes, and Memoir* (Oliver & Boyd), containing part of the Eclogues and *Æneid*. The notes are merely brief explanatory hints to assist the learner in construing. We doubt the propriety of giving a vocabulary with such an author as Virgil. Pupils who are sufficiently advanced to read this writer ought to have a good dictionary to consult.—We like the plan and execution of *Elements of Geography for Schools and Families*, by A. F. Foster (Chapman & Hall). It is a readable and reliable account of the physical and political condition of the globe,—systematic, and yet not so unattractive in form as many school geographies. The author has made M. Cortambert—whose works are sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction in France—his principal authority. The pronouncing and etymological index at the end is a valuable addition. The illustrations of national costumes form another useful feature.—M. F. E. A. Gasc adds to his previous works of French instruction, *Le Petit Compagnon, a French Table-Book for Little Children* (Bell & Daldy), which is a vocabulary and phrase-book, with numerous illustrations, principally drawings of animals.—*Watson's Third Book of Reading, containing Easy Lessons in Prose and Verse* (Watson), is not equal to other books of its class.

Of Miscellaneous Pamphlets we have to record *The Chronicles of Outlands and its Neighbourhood: a Lecture*, by Henry Gay Hewlett (Virtue).—*The Relative Value of Studies and Accomplishments in the Education of Women: a Lecture*, by Prof. Hutton (Faithfull).—*The Uses and Abuses of the Turkish Bath*, by Dr. Haughton (Simkin).—*Colour to Sculpture: Is it Applicable? a Letter to T. C. Grafton*, by C. D. Griffith (Hardwicke).—*A Letter to J. S. S., Esq., on Homoeopathy*, by J. Epps, M.D. in reply to Sir B. Brodie, Bart. (Kent & Co.).—*Macaulay's Minutes on Education in India, written in the Years 1835, 36 and 37, and now first collected from Records in the Department of Public Instruction*, by H. Woodrow (Calcutta, Lewis).—*Sir Morton Peto and the Defence Commission*, (Ridgway).—*The Antagonism of Law and Medicine in Insanity and its Consequences*, by Dr. Laycock (Oliver & Boyd).—*The Pressing Necessity for Increased Docks and Basins at Portsmouth, with some Observations on Mr. Cobden's "Three Panics," by Rear-Admiral the Hon. J. Denman* (Ridgway).—*The Flag of Truce*, dedicated to the Emperor of the French by a White Republican (Ridgway).—and the Right Hon. B. Disraeli's *Speech on Public Expenditure* (Hardwicke).

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

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Ainsworth's *Mervyn Clitheroe*, illustrated, new edit. 8vo. 3s. 6d.
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Dove's *Law of Storms*, trans. by Scott, new edit. 8vo. 10s. 6d.
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St. John's Gospel, French Text & Trans., Gillis's Keys, 12mo. 1s. 6d.
Helping Hand, a Guide to New Test. Maps, &c., sm. or 8vo. 3s. 6d.
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Isidore's *School Euclid*, comprising the 1st 4 Books, 12mo. 2s. 6d.
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Mead's *Six Standards of Arithmetic*, Standard 1, 12mo. 8s. 6d.
Meditations on Death and Eternity, from German, by Rowan, 10s. 6d.

Parleur Lib. 'Twelve Months of Matrimony, by Carlen, n. ed. 2/.

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Rattray's Vancouver Island & Brit. Columbia, Hist. & Maps, 5/.

Roscoe's Evidence in Crim. Cases, by Power, 6 ed. roy. 12mo. 30/.

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Sallust's War of Catiline, Gibber's Keys, 12mo. 1/6. cl. swd.

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Stokesley Secret, The, by Author of 'Heir of Redclyffe,' 2 ed. 3/6. cl.

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[ADVERTISEMENT.]—THE POLICE MAGISTRATE.—On September 1st, never before published, price 2s. RECOLLECTIONS OF AN IRISH POLICE MAGISTRATE. Edited by his Son-in-Law, H. R. ADDISON. This work records the extraordinary career of the late celebrated Major Vokes, Chief Police Magistrate of Munster; his surprising pursuit of "Whiteboys," "Terry Alts," and "Pop-o'-Day Boys," and his marvellous escapes from all kinds of plots to entrap and assassinate him.—London: WARD & LOCK, 153, Fleet Street.

DISCOVERIES AT POMPEII.

Naples, August 9, 1862.

I hasten to communicate to you a singularly interesting discovery which I had the good fortune to witness this morning at Pompeii. You have already had to record many important results of the excavations now in progress under the energetic and enlightened direction of Signor Fiorelli, the journal of whose proceedings, published at intervals with illustrations, *Giornale degli Scavi di Pompei*, promises to be one of the most interesting of the many publications, whether periodical or otherwise, to which at various times this city of the past has given occasion. The excavations which led to this morning's discovery are in continuation of those which have been proceeding for the last two or three months, and to which I shall not further allude, as a detailed description is already in preparation. The last two days, however, may be separated from the rest. The house upon which the workmen are at present engaged is of considerable size. It displays an average amount of the ordinary decoration which prevails in middle-class Pompeian houses; and it also presents on its outer walls several of those curious electioneering addresses in which Pompeian candidates, or their friends, were wont to appeal to the municipal electors. It was not, however, until yesterday that the expectations and consequent vigilance of the excavators were raised beyond the ordinary degree. In a corner of one of the inner rooms was found a heap of silver and copper coins, to the number of above 500. They had seemingly been tied up together in a little bag, which, however, has entirely disappeared; and at first they were agglutinated into a mass, although they have since been separated without difficulty. At the same time, and near the same spot, were found two large shears or scissors, and soon afterwards a house-mill of the ordinary description, together with a little heap of corn, the grains blackened indeed and somewhat shrivelled, but yet fully preserving their shape and very little diminished in size. Even if these indications had not sufficiently pointed out the house as a baker's establishment, all doubt was removed this morning by the discovery in the next apartment, not only of the metal scoop or shovel with which the loaves were placed in the oven, but also of the oven itself, the mouth of which was closed with a large iron door, not attached by hinges, but simply, as at present, cemented at the edges to the faces of the four large slabs which formed the mouth of the oven. At the moment when, in company with the courteous and accomplished director, I entered the bakehouse, the workmen were in the act of endeavouring to remove the iron door, but one of the handles gave way in the attempt. A little patience and care, however, overcame the difficulty, and it was no sooner withdrawn than we were rewarded with the sight of the entire batch of loaves, such as they were deposited in the oven seventeen hundred and eighty-three years ago. They are eighty-two in number, and are all, so far as regards form, size, and indeed every characteristic except weight and colour, precisely as they came from the baker's hand. When it is

remembered that up to the present time but two such loaves had been discovered, one of them imperfect, the interest of this discovery will be fully appreciated. I ought to add, however, that, unlike the loaf in the Museo Borbonico, which is stamped SILIGO. CRANII. E. CICER., these loaves have no baker's name or other mark. They are circular, about nine inches in diameter, rather flat and indented (evidently with the elbow) in the centre; but they are slightly raised at the sides, and divided by deep lines radiating from the centre into eight segments. They are of a deep brown colour, and hard, but exceedingly light.

I can hardly describe the emotion with which I found myself thus brought into the immediate presence of the everyday life of old Pompeii, and led to have an actual part in completing the unfinished work of eighteen centuries ago. How little did the honest Pompeian craftsman, when he sealed up the stock for the supply of his customers on the morrow, anticipate that it was only to see the light through the hands of a generation then undreamt of—one of them a barbarian from the Western Isles, after the lapse of eighteen hundred years!

I ought not to omit that this year's excavations have brought to light a number of exceedingly curious and interesting graffiti, as well as many so-called programme, or inscriptions, in colour or charcoal, one of which, as published in the *Bolletino Archeologico*, of Rome, contains a distinct allusion to the Christians, and under that name.

C. W. RUSSELL.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.

PAPER, STATIONERY, PRINTING AND BOOKBINDING.

In few of the classes of the International Exhibition of 1862 has there been greater progress made than in that numbered 28, comprising Paper, Stationery, Printing and Bookbinding; all of which have made good use of the inventions placed at their command in the shape of new materials and appliances, including photography, electricity, and steam-power; and our endeavour will be to note the advance in each branch since the last great gathering in 1851, comparing the displays of foreign countries with that of our own.

Firstly, in that important article, Paper—the basis of all operations literary,—the progress made is satisfactory. The ingenuity with which waste substances and foreign fibres have been worked up and blended with our own somewhat remarkable product, rags—the produce of every individual and household,—governed only to a limited extent by the laws of demand and supply,—is surprising. Rags, the basis of all first-rate papers, have not risen in price with the vastly-increased demand,—a fact due, perhaps, to our importation from foreign sources, and the success with which we have worked up the produce of our native soil, straw! The manufacture of paper from straw is rapidly progressing to perfection,—the brittle crackle, and liability to tear where folded, being less than formerly: these defects, with a certain absorbency, causing the oily body of printing-ink to sink in, leaving the black upon the surface of the paper, are still to be overcome. In the future history of paper-making, wheat and oat straw will doubtless play an important part,—those fibres being of native growth, abundant, and though by no means waste substances, difficult for foreign plants to compete with. The *Esparto*, a wild Spanish grass, shown by Mr. Routledge, is very abundant, and exhibits the uses of a foreign fibre well suited to the wants of the paper-maker; but the greatest novelty in the utilization of a native vegetable waste is the paper and millboards fabricated from hop-bine by Mr. Barling, of Maidstone. The best specimens of wheat-straw paper, and stationery made therefrom, are shown by Messrs. Townsend, Hook & Co.; their writing-paper being excellent, taking ink from the pen with greater certainty than rag-papers,—a quality very desirable. Of oat-straw paper, Messrs. Burgess & Ward show samples, processes and results in pulp, paper and print.

Of foreign papers from new materials, the display is as varied as our own, those shown seeming to be of less practical value. In the Zollverein are papers from straw and wood. The

maize-paper on which the Austrians have printed their Catalogue is but an experiment. As a rule, foreign papers are thinner than ours; a fact partly due to postal regulations, less weight being allowed abroad than with us.

If the influences of civilization tend to multiply paper-mills, it is political freedom that makes them abound, as in America: prior to the civil war, that state, though a cotton-producing country, competed with us all over Europe for rags. The weaving and wearing countries prepare materials for the mill. From India, China and Japan, we import rags; though in all these countries papers are made, and in almost all instances from native fibres, producing surfaces well suited to their block-printing and manufactures, being extremely tough when indurated with varnishes or oils. The uses to which papers have and can be applied are too numerous to mention here: they may be made combustible or incombustible, hard or soft, heavy or light, transparent or opaque, of all tints and hues. The Japanese send pocket-handkerchiefs, hats and coats; the Spaniard, his paper-covered cigarettes; the English, shirt-collars, and paper-pipes for gas and water, sheathing for ships, and card-board castles—perhaps to be blown to bits by gun-cotton from paper ordnance:—suffice it to say, one exhibitor had hoped to place with other articles of paper, a cannon—a three-pounder!

Of Stationery, in Class 28, including as it does the many forms of manufactured paper, we shall have little to say, so much does the trivial preponderate over the useful. The stationer, where he ministers to the pure wants of commerce or study, facilitating trade by supplying the requirements of merchants and traders, has an important office; where he panders to the passion for play or supplies ready-made sentiments, both amorous and satirical, in the form of valentines, his calling is not high,—the fancy stationer being but a species of toy-dealer in ephemeral tricks.

In Printing, within the last decade, we have had the aid of many inventions tending greatly to widen its operations and usefulness,—though printing as a process remains much the same as practised by the early typographers; moveable types, ink and presses doing the work still,—though composing and distributing machines, rollers and cylinders, facilitate the operation, aided by the giant power of steam—not having arrived at that period when electricity shall impart forms and colour to paper with but few of the aids at present employed. Since the invention of stereotyping, by which masses of type could be liberated, no invention has done more for the art than the electrotype—giving us in copper deposit perfect duplicates of engraved surfaces.

Electricity and Photography seem destined to work great changes in the printing arts. Though they never can supersede the artist or the handicraftsman, they may modify his operations, as may be seen by an old engraved copper-plate coated with steel in the case of Messrs. Bradbury & Wilkinson. By this operation, soft metals can be, without the slightest injury, coated with hard, which can be removed at pleasure. For the want of some such invention as this, copper-plate engraving has died out; now it may revive.

As regards the enlargement or reduction of prints by photography, and their reproduction, those exhibited by Sir H. James, of the Ordnance Department at Southampton, bear the closest scrutiny. His photo-zincographic prints from the Doomsday Book, and a print, 'The Election,' by Hogarth, are repetitions to astonish a connoisseur, it only being by size and texture that a difference is discernible.

Photographs from nature, mounted in printed books, have never been happy, rarely suiting as illustrations to the text, or according in tone with the type. Apart from their liability to fade, they make volumes look clumsy—anything but solid, and apt to gape open.

Of processes to supersede the labours of the wood-engraver—a long-cherished idea with inventors,—we have one or two examples; Mr. W. J. Linton showing one he terms "Kerograph," producing brilliant results in the hands

of an artist, but somewhat speculative for general use in pictorial effects,—as is also the invention (French in its origin) promoted by the Electro-block Company, not famous for their blocks or electrotypes, but for the ease with which they can reduce or extend engravings, and transfer them to stone or canvas; which they do by taking advantage of the elastic properties of india-rubber,—the sketches in oil by Mr. John Leech having been enlarged, from his drawings in *Punch*, by that method, and afterwards painted over by the artist himself.

Of processes to render surface and incised plates into blocks capable of being printed with letter-press, we have Glyptography—much used for maps; and two methods,—one exhibited in Austria—a process by which chalk lithographs are converted into blocks,—and another in France, showing how engravings and drawings can be rendered in relief, and produce printed surfaces. Of the two contending arts, one tries to supersede the other—draughtsman to do without engraver, engraver without draughtsman; as may be seen by a specimen shown by Mr. Leighton,—an engraving upon wood from a bas-relief by Flaxman, executed in straight, graduated lines alone—a block produced without a stroke or touch save the engraver's, photography having given the forms upon the wood.

In Nature-printing—a beautiful process, that has its limits, like all others,—both drawing and engraving are dispensed with, the printer being the tangible reproducer. The principal works shown are the folio 'Ferns of Great Britain,' and 'Sea-Weeds,' by Henry Bradbury,—very beautifully rendered.

In Mr. Wallis's new art of Autotypography, he has applied the principle of nature-printing to works of a pictorial character,—impressing the artist's own drawing, to his most delicate washes, upon the surface of a soft metal plate—producing some charming effects: the medium used being transparent, renders tracing over sketches easy, and no reversal of subject or writing necessary.

Since our last Exhibition of 1851, in the arts of Chromo-typography and Chromo-lithography we have made much way, particularly in the elder art; for though block books in colours are as old as printing in China, pictorial printing in oil colour at the platten and cylinder press has only found development in the present day, being thrown off with the rapidity of newspapers at a steam-machine,—not the most favourable method for registering colours, twelve or more of which are sometimes used upon one production. Of some of those issued from the Milford-House Press, 230,000 copies have been produced: these, multiplied by the number of printings, will give some idea of the enormous aggregate impressions required.

Chromo-lithography is the last development of the art of printing from stone—a discovery of our own time; a poor German having accidentally found that from porous stone, grease and water, he could obtain prints,—doubtless, little dreaming then of the pictures the process would some day give. Brooks, Day, and Hanhart all exhibit examples of chromo-lithographic printing, which for pictorial effect and colour far surpass those from Paris, Vienna and Munich, though not in good drawing. The ornamental items sent by Continental nations far outvie our own; nothing to compare with the small illuminated works from France or Germany being here.

Having mentioned the vastly-increased resources science has placed at the command of the printer, we will conclude this section with an observation on the type exhibited. All the British foundries show good English characters, clear, sharp and durable, but not comparable with foreign establishments for ornamental forms and combinations, that render printing an elegant Art and a compositor an Art-workman. The division of labour in England is perhaps the cause of our want of taste in many departments: certain it is, here we have nothing in typography so complete as the Royal and Imperial offices of the Continent, which, if they do not advance trade, at least set it a high standard.

In British Bookbinding as an Art we have both

retrograded and advanced most whimsically—being guided by a great deal of dilettanteism; set styles and methods finding favour with certain collectors, who not alone content, like good antiquaries, to guard the products of the past, seek to make them serve standards for the future. In bookbinding, printing, engraving and other arts, periods have had their styles, by those conversant with them to be distinguished; a thing that will not be so patent to the future, if we pull against the stream of time—imitating the early printers, their wire and water marks, even to the toning the paper as if by age. These conceits, with revivals of old Renaissance patterns, more easily copied than excelled, are much to be deplored. In leather binding and exquisite hand-tooling we are not quite rivals of the French, though, perhaps, in durability and character we are equal—our paper, being thicker, requiring a different treatment. In cloth, or publishers' binding, we are without rivals anywhere, though imitators are neither few nor mean. Of the extra-bookbinders who exhibit, Messrs. J. & J. Leighton are the largest—depending as they do upon novelty, form, design and colour for effect;—Mr. Bedford, for his elaborate toolings of old patterns upon sombre hues;—Mr. Riviere, still sombre, is more varied in his forms;—Mr. Holloway exhibiting much neatness with more colour than either of the last mentioned;—while Mr. Zaehnsdorf is more remarkable for neatness and finish, combined with fair design. Of French exhibitors but one book-binder shows, M. Gruel Engleman, who has a choice and novel display of volumes, dependent upon many arts for their decoration—the goldsmith, carver, embroiderer and enameller all contributing to the production of these *livres de luxe*, which are rather gems for the cabinet than books for the shelves or general use. Not so those sent by M. Mame & Co., of Tours, large French publishers, printers and binders. Their books, though elaborate, are novel in treatment and perfectly flat—quite a contrast to the bookbinding of the Austrians, remarkable for the way in which they mould and adapt leather into patterns suited to the wants of heavy folios—giving them a grand and picturesque air, hardly warranted by the sewing and general workmanship. Brussels, St. Petersburg, Berlin and other capitals send specimens of bookbinding, but not a marked advance upon our own.

Remarkable, as a contrast to the laboured tooling of the extra-bookbinder, is the cloth-binding executed for the British publishers in large numbers,—the prepared calico and character of the block decorations having of late years reached a high pitch of excellence, the admiration of foreigners, who find no parallel to it in their thin paper-covered tomes. This class of work has gradually risen from dull red calico (substituted for paper) to embossed cloth, effulgent with gold and colour, cheering the walls of our libraries and tables of our drawing-rooms—durable bindings, lasting with moderate care for many years. Of our publishers' binding we may feel justly proud, for it is purely national, and has had the benefit of the best Art. Of the works displayed many are familiar friends, of late seasons: Messrs. Leighton, Son & Hodge showing several of large size, worked by steam-power; Messrs. Bone & Son, others illuminated; whilst Messrs. Westleys & Co. not only contribute cloth covers, but some well-bound books likewise.

Taken as a whole, Class 28 is very creditable to the national progress of England, particularly in the departments of Paper, Printing and Book-binding; many things having been accomplished not thought possible in 1851, whilst others now in their infancy are strong, giving fair evidence in future results not less important than those of the last ten years.

CUNEIFORM HISTORY AND CHRONOLOGY.

August 13, 1862.

I very much fear that the tablets lately found by Sir Henry Rawlinson, and by him very properly described as the now celebrated Canon, will, before this matter be done with, be more celebrated still.

An exact account of days and years is needed for full history; and when such has been found on the cuneiform inscriptions, it seems to establish

the sufficiency of the record. But if the tablets be found to be fictitious accounts, it will be no violent inference that the inscriptions which adopt the names and dates are very much the same, in spite of the apparently historical aim.

Minute details seem to indicate the precision of true history, and even Mr. Gladstone proposes as a proof of reality that Tydeus is said to be little. This is, however, singularly characteristic of the fire-god. He is sometimes, as with the Egyptians, little and deformed, or decrepit. But his proper form is that of being little, powerful and handsome, impetuous, graceful and winning, which becomes a test of unreality rather than the reverse.

The proof that the lists on those tablets are fictitious is enough. But even more, there is probable proof that they were completed subsequently to the time of Alexander the Great. If so, the lions and temples are not of Nineveh at all, but of the times of the Seleucide or Arsacide. Such lists are common to ancient nations; and having detected the law of their formation, I examined, last autumn, the numbers, and found it exactly observed.

As such lists are singularly exact, it is hazardous for Sir Henry Rawlinson to announce a mistake in them when he finds Yam Bil Ikin in one, where there is Assur Bil Ikin in another. The inference is that those names are not proper, but generally significant,—that Yam is really Hamah, the Sun-light, as Semsi El is another form, and Assur another. Bil Ikin, with a dialectical change, is extant on a Greek inscription as an epithet of Zeus. M. Renan declared long ago that Assyrian names are mainly Aryan.

I can only ask space to show the simplest form, as an illustration rather than a proof that those lists are not only fictitious, but of late date.

	XVI.	XVII.	XVIII.	XIX.
	20	20	20	20
	6	6	6	6
Salmaneser	24	24	24	24
	14	14	14	14
	11	11	11	11
	18	18	18	18
	10	10	10	10
	21	21	21	21
	3	3	3	3
	38	40	31	31
	19	29	46	46
Cyrus	3	9	31	9
	8	8	8	8
	36	36	36	36
Artaxerxes	21	21	21	21
	41	43	43	41
Sum 360	19	19	19	19
Artaxerxes II.	40	40	46	40
Sum 300	21	21	21	21
	6	6	6	6
Alexander the Great	6	6	6	6
Sum 300	480	424	424	424

The era of Nabonassar is also called that of Salmaneser, and the 424 years is the sum of the Canon of Ptolemy. It will appear probable that the numbers in Sir Henry Rawlinson's list formed part of a Hieratic system ending at the time of Alexander the Great.

JAMES BROWN.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

Mr. Whympy, father of the Alpine climber, kindly supplies us, in the absence of his son, with a few further particulars respecting his accident on the Matterhorn. It appears that previous to the accident the mountaineer had made two attempts, with guides, to ascend, and had fixed his tent at an elevation of nearly 12,000 feet. It was in one of his trial excursions from this point, to try and find some higher ledge on which to sleep, that the accident befell him. Up to this height the ground was pretty familiar to him, as he had traversed it no less than eight times. We may now use his own graphic words:—"I found a sleeping-place about 300 feet higher, and came quickly down. In passing the tent I left everything behind that I could, including my axe. The Col was passed in safety; but on turning a corner of the precipice, to my

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The dition, Robert Colum Brown British countri view to and ph member explor sion ac The fol Sir W. Dalrym Dundas Esq., C ham, E C. Law Esq., I A re ment—

right, I found that two days' sun had nearly destroyed some steps in the ice which I had cut the day before. The position was awkward: a long slope of ice, as smooth as glass, led away below me; a precipice literally perpendicular rose above; the route lay along the junction of the two on the top edge of the slope. Time forbade my returning for the axe, so I commenced with my left hand to dig the steps afresh with the point of my *baton*, holding to a cranny with my right. I had nearly finished, when, on stepping downwards, my foot slipped. Down I went like lightning; in a moment my *baton* was dashed from my hand, and my knapsack brought my head down first; some rocks peeped out 20 feet down, and into these I fell. It was now, not sliding, but flying absolutely head over heels. I fell 195 feet in five or six bounds—striking my head four times. The last bound must have been fully 60 feet; it took me right across the gully, into some jagged rocks. I clutched at them with all my might, and, after sliding a little further, happily stopped myself. Had I fallen 10 feet lower, I should have shot over a precipice of at least 800 feet." Mr. Whymper's wounds, as we said last week, though numerous, were superficial. The application of snow partially stopped the bleeding. Mr. Whymper is of opinion that the Matterhorn is inaccessible to mere arms and legs. Prof. Tyndall took a ladder, but even with this aid it was found impossible to conquer the last precipices.

Prof. Owen explains, in the ensuing note, the circumstances under which his thoughts 'On a National Museum of Natural History' have passed through the several stages of a Lecture at the Royal Institution, a Report furnished by himself to the *Athenæum*, and a publication, as a pamphlet, by Messrs. Saunders, Odley & Co. The explanation is perfectly simple and perfectly satisfactory. Feeling the great importance of his communication, we gave it the most conspicuous place in our power; inserting it in our leading columns instead of under learned Societies. This Report has now been reprinted, with such notes, diagrams and other additions as Prof. Owen finds necessary to complete his case:—

August 19, 1862.

"On the 26th April, 1861, I delivered at the Royal Institution the Friday Evening Lecture, 'On a National Museum of Natural History,' as announced in your Number of April 20th. I sent you a full report of the Lecture, with the title, as such, prefixed. You preferred to insert it as an article. To define my work of 120 pages, 'On the Extent and Aims of a National Museum of Natural History,' as a mere reprint, with a few lines of introduction, is not correct. It bears the same relation to the lecture it embodies as other minor works of mine, having Friday Evening Lectures amplified and modified for their basis. In these, as in the work in question, I have omitted reference to contemporary reports and abstracts of the Lecture; but I shall not fail to supply the omission in any future re-issue of my pamphlet on the Natural-History Museum.

"I am, &c.

RICHARD OWEN."

The Committee of the Oregon Botanical Expedition, at Edinburgh, have resolved to send Mr. Robert Brown to Vancouver's Island and British Columbia on a voyage of scientific discovery. Mr. Brown will be instructed to explore the Flora of British Columbia, Vancouver's Island, and the countries adjoining the Rocky Mountains, with a view to the transmission of seeds of hardy trees and plants, and the seeds and roots of flowers, to members of the Oregon Association;—the field of exploration being subject to modification or extension according to the direction of the Committee. The following gentlemen form the Committee:—Sir W. Gibson-Craig, Bart. (Chairman), Viscount Dalrymple, Sir William Jardine, Bart., Sir David Dundas, Bart., Prof. J. H. Balfour, A. Campbell, Esq., Col. Ferguson, T. A. Hog, Esq., H. Graham, Esq., I. Anderson-Henry, Esq. (Secretary), C. Lawson, Esq., C. McIntosh, Esq., J. McNab, Esq. (Treasurer), T. G. Parry, Esq., G. Patton, Esq., D. Smith, Esq. and W. T. Thomson, Esq.

A reader draws our attention to a false statement—one of many—in M. Thiers's 'Histoire du

Consulat et de l'Empire.' M. Thiers says the English only captured one French flag. Two flags, it is admitted, had been taken from D'Erlon's brigade,—those of the 45th and 105th divisions: but M. Thiers asserts that the 45th was retaken, by a sub-lieutenant Urban, with details of romantic heroism, fit for the Porte St.-Martin Theatre in the Dog-days. That flag was not, however, recaptured at all; it hangs beside its fellow eagle of the 105th division in Chelsea Hospital, as M. Thiers may satisfy himself at any hour of the day. The error is a trifle compared to many of M. Thiers's misrepresentations of events on the field of Waterloo; but it is of a kind which admits of easy and irrefutable proof.

The theory that crime and ignorance are closely allied, receives unhappy confirmation by the Report of the Registrar-General on Marriages in Ireland. Unfortunately, all Roman Catholic marriages are exempt from registration; but those among Protestants show that among those married in 1861, 25 per cent. of the men and 39 per cent. of the women signed with a mark. The number of marriages during the above year amounted to 8,862, being 274 less than during 1860.

Hosts of answers to the challenge of a quatrain rhyming "month" and "orange" still pour in. It is the season of the Dog-days, and literary trifling is the humour of the moment. We spare our readers all reference to such words as "Tor range," "war-range," "no range," and the like, as false in accent; and to such evasions as "shunn'th" and "runn'th," as elliptical and pedantic. The difficulty, however, may be overcome by having recourse to proper names. A rhyme has certainly been found for orange in the name of a hill near Abergavenny, in Wales—the Blorrange. "Millionth" is suggested as a rhyme to month; but it will scarcely pass. We hear of a family name of Gunth which would certainly supply a rhyme to month; as would also the sacred book of the Sikhs—the Grunth. Either of these words might be fairly introduced into English verse, and in that limited sense might be said to supply the rhyme required—as thus:—

From the Indus to the Blorrange,
Came the Rajah in a month;
Eating now and then an orange—
Conning all the day his Grunth!

—But this would be no more than a success of evasion. Of the trifles sent to us—anagrams, lipograms and macaronic verses—in illustration of our recent article, the following lipogram, by Mr. Arthur Locker, may be given. The letters *c* and *s* are not used in it:—

Oh, tell me, Queen of Fairy-land!
What elfin lore may do
To win for me that lily hand,
The hand of her I woo.
I need not name or herb or draught,
You know them all too well;
Prepare the bowl—let it be quaff'd
By haughty Amabel.
That winged boy of Pagan fame
Heard only half my prayer;
I hoped for mutual love—a flame
To weld in one the pair:
The tiny rogue employed no art
Her lofty pride to quell;
At me alone he aim'd the dart—
Why not at Amabel?
To him I'll plead for aid no more,
The Love-God of old Rome;
But, patriot-like, I mean t' implore
The Fairy-folk of Home!
On hill-top, or 'neath leafy tree,
Where'er ye deign to dwell,
Hark to my prayer, and win for me
The lovely Amabel!

The following note speaks for itself:—

"Sheffield, August 16, 1862.

"We notice in the *Athenæum* of to-day a list of prizes granted by the Painters' Company in the International Exhibition, in which our work is honourably mentioned; but it is stated that no award could be made, because the name of the actual performer of the work was not known. Although quite agreeing in general with your remarks which follow, we think it due to ourselves to state that in our case they do not apply, as our work is entirely designed by a member of the firm; and, of course, we should have been glad to have informed the Painters' Company of this, if they had taken the trouble to inquire.

"JOHN & JOSEPH RODGERS."

Two accidents, occurring within a few days, have awakened attention to the form which the sensational rage has taken at the Music Saloons. At the Canterbury Hall, a fortnight ago, a M. Maximin Argonaud missed the trapeze, while attempting one of the prodigious leaps which are now expected from acrobats of this character, and fell on one of the large candelabra that light the building. He was much cut about the thighs, and sustained a serious injury to the chest. On the following Friday, a similar misfortune occurred, at Highbury Barn, to Selina Young, otherwise called the Female Blondin. This intrepid woman, who some months ago, at Cremorne, crossed the Thames on the high rope, was performing a similar experiment in the gardens, with a pole charged at either end with fireworks. Elevated 100 feet above the ground, she passed along, amidst the explosion of Catherine-wheels, and illuminated with blue fire. But the action of the fireworks appears to have destroyed her balance, and she fell through the trees, and was found on the grass doubled up and senseless. It is a law, that in these great instances of public tendency, they should be manifested in their lowest and most ultimate forms, as well as in their highest; whence it follows that, if better educated minds require the sensational element in a well-written and well-constructed drama, the less instructed will equally demand it in the popular exhibitions of athletic strength or skill. In the latter case, there is always apparent danger; and its presence is indeed needful to the excitement that it is the aim of those who provide for the public taste to produce. If the danger, however, should change its character, and prove itself to be truly real, entertainments of the kind require the intervention of the Home Secretary, who has, indeed, been called upon by more than one of our journals to interfere. Two such accidents occurring within so short a space of time go far to establish a case; and should it be detected that our populace visit such exhibitions in the spirit in which the degenerate Romans of the Decline and Fall went to the gladiatorial shows of the time, it would be proper to suppress them at once. Meanwhile, it is still more expedient (the issues being so much the more important) to consider the spirit of sensationalism thus manifested in our amusement-seekers in its higher as well as its lower phases. Should we not discourage it all the more sedulously in the dramatic and various literary shapes which it assumes, seeing that the example thus set in matters of superior authority so fatally influences the common mass, and manifestly corrupts society at its very base? See what we have got in exchange for that high poetic feeling which almost all have consented to abandon for mere melo-dramatic effects, in which there is no novelty, one copying from another without end, and the most original only reproducing what our fathers had tried and condemned! Again, we have come to the point at which sentence is demanded, and we shall have to give in our verdict after the old fashion. Error does not cease to be error by being repeated; and when its time for producing mischief arrives, there is but one verdict possible.

The very ingenious automatic electric light, invented by M. V. Serrin, of Paris, exhibited among the *Instruments de Précision*, in the French Department of the Exhibition, has been shown under various phases at the Polytechnic Institution. The great difficulty in an electric light is to maintain a constantly equal distance between two charcoal points. This is effected by M. Serrin's system, and the result is a steady light of great utility. So intense, indeed, and far-reaching is the light, that small print may be read by it at a distance of three miles. M. Serrin's invention has been practically and successfully employed in carrying on railway works in Spain, where, in consequence of the great heat during the day in summer, it is impossible to carry on the works profitably excepting during the cool night hours. The experiments at the Polytechnic Institution, which will, we believe, be repeated, consist in showing the light in an atmosphere of carbonic acid, burning under water, when it is extremely brilliant, and contrasting it with the illuminating power of ordinary candles.

On the history of the word "Bedlam," as descriptive of a madhouse,—a topic already broached in these columns, in connexion with Tyndale's Prologue to the New Testament,—we have received the following notes:—Your Correspondent "G. P. D." raises an interesting question about the word "Bedlam," which he finds used in its present sense in the prologue to Tyndale's New Testament. The date of that publication (1525) being at least twenty years prior to that at which Bethlehem Hospital is believed to have been first applied to the reception of lunatics, he is naturally rather perplexed to find in it such an expression as "bedlem madde." Even if the date of the publication were a mistake, the prologue bears pretty distinct evidence of having been written by Tyndale himself, who died a martyr in 1536, while the gift of Bethlehem Hospital to the City of London as a place for lunatics was certainly some years later, after the dissolution of the monasteries. The truth is, this is only one of those cases in which the popular impression of an historical event is rather an exaggerated one. It is quite true that the hospital was granted to the City of London for the purpose to which it is still applied, either by Henry the Eighth or Edward the Sixth; but it is a mistake to suppose it had never been so used before. The royal grant changed the government of the hospital, not its use. Monastic institutions, whatever evils they may have been answerable for, were undoubtedly the medium of much practical good that we seldom give them credit for, and to mental and bodily disease they offered such assistance as the skill and science of the age afforded. I have myself met with a passage in the works of Tyndale's great opponent, Sir Thomas More, who died even before him (a martyr, too, though for a different cause), which proves beyond a doubt that Bethlehem Hospital was a place for lunatics before the dissolution of the religious houses. "Think not," he says, in his treatise *De Quatuor Novissimis* (page 73 of his English works),—"Think not that every thing is pleasant that men for madnes laughe at. For thou shalt in Bedleem see one laugh at the knocking of his own hed against a post, and yet there is little pleasure therein."

JAMES GAIRDNER.

BRITISH INSTITUTION, Pall Mall.—The GALLERY, with a Collection of PICTURES by ANCIENT MASTERS and deceased BRITISH ARTISTS, is OPEN DAILY, from Ten to Six, and will CLOSE on SATURDAY, the 30th inst.—Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d. GEORGE NICOL, Secretary.

MR. JOHN LEECH'S GALLERY of SKETCHES in OIL, from Subjects in "Funch," is open every day from Ten till Dusk, at the EGYPTIAN HALL, Piccadilly.—Admission, One Shilling.

BEDFORD'S PHOTOGRAPHS of the EAST, taken during the Tour in which, by command, he accompanied H.R.H. the Prince of Wales in Egypt, the Holy Land, and Syria, Constantinople, the Mediterranean, Athens, &c. EXHIBITING by permission, and Names of Subscribers received, at the GERMAN GALLERY, 168, New Bond Street, DAILY, from Ten till dusk.—Admission, One Shilling.

SCIENCE

A Glossary of Mineralogy. By William Bristow. (Longman & Co.)

THERE are two ways of treating Mineralogy and every other natural science, viz., the strictly scientific or formal, and the informal but popular one, which is generally pleasing. The former method has been patiently and zealously pursued by several accomplished mineralogists, and there is no lack of learned and satisfactory Systems, Manuals, Introductions and Treatises on this important science. Some of these, such as the volumes by Dana and Nicol, and also the improved editions of their forerunner, the intelligent William Phillips, leave little to be desired in the same form of book. After such labours, there is in fact nothing more to do but to add new minerals and localities when discovered, and to make occasional corrections as the result of more precise knowledge and more accurate observation. There is scarcely room or occasion for a new manual of Mineralogy; and what has been so long wanting with relation to British and Irish Mineralogy was supplied about four years ago by the useful volume of Messrs. Greg and Lettsom.

But with so many and such excellent manuals or treatises on this subject, how does it happen that no natural science is less generally studied, at least in England, and none perhaps so commonly disregarded? In our National Museum we have one of the finest known collections of minerals, displayed in room after room, and so displayed as to be visible to all who care to inspect the specimens. In this respect, and in this only, we fear, are the nation's minerals brought down to the level of the popular apprehension. To look at some of the fossils, indeed, you must stand on tiptoe or stretch your neck to aching; but everywhere beneath your eyes, and almost up to them, are brought the hundreds after hundreds of valuable and rare minerals which successive benefactors have bequeathed to an unstudious nation, and which successive purchases out of the national purse have procured from the dark caverns of the earth, from its deep, far-extending mines, from the beds of rivers, the recesses of valleys, and the heights and summits of rocky mountains. Here is a very garner-house of the earth's mineral harvest,—an ingathering of precious metals, priceless gems, purest and most perfect crystals, rarest forms of minerals and rarest compounds, gold that has glistened in Siberia and California or in Australian gulches, gems that have sparkled on other shores than those of Britain, emeralds and rubies, sapphires and topazes of "purest ray serene," silver that branches out like a tiny tree, copper that reflects the feathery hues of the peacock; lead that vies in colour with an orange, or is as verdant as the grass in moist meadows; iron that came not, according to the wont of iron, out of the earth, but directly down from the skies—the singular native produce of aerial regions—in a complete and perhaps matchless suite of meteorites, which, like the image from Jupiter, fell down from heaven. Then all temptingly sliced and polished come the marbles, agates, cornellians, opals, lazulites and jaspers, variously reflecting various hues, from the azure of Italian skies to the glow of English fires. All these and a thousand other specimens of almost endless interest are here, and some few of almost incredible value, as that massive Rubellite which was priced at 1,000*l.*: all these are here, and here they may be in idle stony state as things now are, occasionally indeed attracting the momentary notice of a few young folks in the holidays, and a few old folks who are bound to glance at what their young ones point at. A dozen times a year they may be hurriedly looked over by a fast-filing crowd of bewildered country people or sadly jaded artisans, and then this invaluable collection is neglected by most, except an odd round-jacketed sailor, or a deliberate old gentleman, or a solitary student. As to any intelligent recognition of the distinctive characters and forms and practical uses of minerals, this is as rare as a rare mineral itself; and it may be truthfully affirmed that not one person in a thousand, who looks upon those well-stored glass cases, has the most elementary notion of the science of mineralogy or its practical applications,—not to say a word about the ability to distinguish one stone from another, or a piece of shining iron pyrites from a piece of pure gold.

There are many sufficient reasons for this general ignorance and want of interest in Mineralogy beyond the mere glitter and beauty of the finest specimens. One is the lack of popular lectures, and another the lack of popular books on this science. In the absence of these, how can you expect even an educated person to tell you the difference between tourmaline and tellurium, or amber and common gum, or the diamond and quartz, or a ruby and a garnet?

Without taking the first steps to awaken a special interest in the mineral kingdom, you may gather together and exhibit all the choicest cabinets of specimens in Europe; and, nevertheless, the multitude will pass by all that does not glow and glisten, and look like gems, or gold, or silver, perfectly astonished if you recall them and declare that there is a world of interest, a depth of significance, and a large amount of practical importance in what they have despised as a heap of old and odd stones, with capriciously curious names derived from no known language ever spoken upon the inhabited earth.

The indifference with which minerals are commonly regarded might pass into absolute distaste if a scientific manual were put into a common reader's hands. In such a manual he would see little but an assemblage of the hardest and strangest names he had ever in vain attempted to pronounce; and if he should open upon the Germanic titles of certain minerals, such as *Schwarzgültigerz* (an ore of silver) and *Selenschwefelquecksilber* (an ore of mercury), he would be very little the wiser, and probably a good deal the stupider. To attempt after this to indoctrinate him into the principles of mineralogical classification or crystallography would be vain enough. Crystals have been beautifully called the flowers of minerals; while crystallography consists of anything but flowers of speech. Who will read continual and mere measurements of the angles of crystals? more especially, who will measure them for himself? A reflecting goniometer is about as strange an instrument to the educated world as a compound microscope to the Japanese; nor will the mathematical minutiae of crystallography ever allure any but determined students. Yet there is probably a method of rendering even crystallography attractive to all—a way of placing a crystal in such a position that the rays of Fancy shall play upon it, and glance from it, and gladden even the dullness of a decidedly unmineralogical mind as respects technicalities. For such minds it is worse than a waste of time to discourse upon integrant molecules and cleavage, primary and secondary forms and macles, and all the other regular and exceptional circumstances which determine the formation and measurements of crystals. What are the perfections of a crystal, as a rhomb, octohedron, or dodecahedron, to a person who has too solid a head to admit geometrical solids? How can any reasonable teacher expect attention to the replacement of a crystal's angles, or any such geometrical subject, unless the auditor has been first charmed with the beauty of law, and determinate growth, and definite direction even in those lifeless substances which the earth holds in her most secret recesses, and nourishes atom by atom—not one of them all finding its fixed home by chance—during unknown centuries?

It is perfectly true that, after all his efforts, a teacher, or lecturer, or writer on these topics will labour under the disadvantage of dealing with inorganic substances, and he can never invest these with the attractions that belong to the harmony of organized forms and the mutual relations and adaptations of parts, which, when demonstrated in complex structures, excite such lively gratification. So far, then, Mineralogy will ever be second to Paleontology in popular favour. It requires a more abstract turn and a more mathematical taste to apprehend the former science. It demands a greater fund of illustration and a richer play of fancy in him who would win the favour of the multitude to things which have never lived and breathed, to substances which have no intelligible epochal history. Although it is

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a wonderful triumph of mind to re-clothe the old geological valley of dry bones with flesh, to fit bone to bone, and to re-model and re-animate the extinct animal, so that he lives again before your eyes to-day, and crops herbs and branches, or mangles lesser flesh, and crunches weaker bones than his own; yet it would be a still more wonderful triumph of mind to marshal the shapeless individuals of the mineral kingdom from all their caves and from all our cabinets, and to set them in such array as should instruct the ignorant, allure the indifferent, and promote a zealous pursuit of the science. Still, the mineralogist would have some few advantages over the palæontologist. He would display a far greater richness and variety of colours; he would exhibit the peculiar charms of transparency, opalescence and brilliancy; and he would, in particular, lay hold on the common mind of a mercantile community by an explanation of the numerous and important economical applications of mineral substances in the arts and trades of commercial life. He would bring his science to bear on the foundry and the workshop, on chemistry and on colours, on the *Materia Medica* of the apothecary, and on the metallic implements of trade and husbandry, which depend, for their improvement, upon a full knowledge of metallic mineralogy. All this might be more to the mind of the multitude than the most skilful restoration of an *Iguanodon*, or the most persevering patience in refitting the tip of the snout to a *Telesaurus*, or the setting upon his long-lost legs the perfect frame of a stalking *Dinornis*.

Mineralogical manuals, as we have said, are many; but really popular, and at the same time accurate, books on Mineralogy are very few. Nearly the same may be said of public lectures, of which there are or ought to be several that are scientific, but of which probably there are few that are in any sense popular. The amount of attendance upon mineralogical lectures will be strikingly dependent upon their popular character. Doubtless it would be discouraging to learn how few listeners there are to the truly accomplished mineralogists who here and there discourse learnedly upon their science. One thing, however, must be manifest, viz. that it is of little service to collect minerals if you cannot collect audiences. So unacquainted are the public with even the exterior appearances of common ores, that you might pave the streets with them and they would hardly know it, and you might mend the roads with silver, in certain of its ores, and scarcely a pedestrian would stoop down to gather it. You might even empty half of the mineralogical cases in our two Metropolitan Museums into Great Russell Street and into Jermyn Street, and if you did this secretly, you would probably find after many days most of the precious specimens where you had cast them out, unless crushed by carts or broken up by the parish stone-breakers. This will always be a probable supposition until men hear and read much more illustrative and attractive matter than they have yet heard upon the earth's mineral treasures. It is not that knowledge of this science is wanting in its professors, but that an earnest desire to know what they know is as yet unkindled, or at least ungratified, in the community.

As to technical lectures, we remember being present one evening when a lecture was delivered by a gentleman fresh from one of the finest mineral countries in the world. He was surrounded by a numerous and educated auditory, and elaborate and symbolic diagrams, while before him lay a load of choice specimens. What could be more favourable and more promising? The lecturer was received

with applause, and began with self-satisfaction. Ten minutes, however, showed his mistake, and that also of the audience. On he went with the chemical constitution of his minerals, describing how this specimen had some atoms more of such a constituent than another. Scrupulously correct he certainly was; but it was manifest to all, except to himself, that his auditors did not care an atom for all his atoms, or for himself either. Eyes were restlessly directed rather to the hour-hand than to the diagrams of chemical symbols; and finally three or four hundred people heaved audible sighs of relief when the relentless clock put an end to all differences, whether of mineral constitution or mental opinion about the lecturer's abilities. Probably at least three hundred well-bred people that night made secret vows never to be drawn out to another lecture upon minerals. Yet such an audience for general intelligence could not have been counted upon in many other lecture-rooms in England.

All who are acquainted with the value of Mineralogy, and with its important relations to other collateral sciences, as well as to our national wealth and industry, will regret its present unacceptance, and will be rather impatient of such impediments to its popularity as might be easily removed. Surely, for instance, not merely leading specimens, but every specimen in our public collections might be distinctly and intelligibly labelled. Never till very lately, we believe, were labels placed under the British Museum minerals. What is now doing in this way is gratifying so far as it goes. In Mr. Bristow's book, references are made to the numbers of the cases in the Museum containing the minerals treated of, and in a more popularly constructed work such references would be very serviceable. On points of classification, however, Mr. Bristow has wisely observed, "The system of classification proposed originally by Berzelius, and adopted at the British Museum, is founded upon the electro-chemical theory. This in many cases leads to a great amount of inconvenience in practice. The minerals of the various metals, for instance, are by this means dispersed and widely separated from each other, occasioning much confusion to the student, and involving considerable loss of time in tracking the ores of each particular metal through the various cases in which they are contained." Let any student who has manfully and patiently persisted in visiting the national collection say how he has hitherto been perplexed and confused, rather than instructed, by its too long-prevailing arrangement; and let any visitor not a student declare what amount of knowledge he has acquired, compared with what he might have acquired from the inspection of our mineral treasures. Dead stones cannot arrange themselves rightly, nor can they complain of disrespect. At present we sadly need the right mineral in the right place, although we may hope that an intelligible and readable name together with a locality will soon be bestowed upon every one.

A very obvious truth is expressed by Mr. Bristow in the sentence:—"This eye-knowledge (as it may be termed) can only be acquired by long and diligent practice, by actual examination, and by handling the specimens themselves; no opportunities of doing which should be neglected." But then, as to such eye-knowledge, how are you to get it, if no "actual examination" is permitted? and as to handling the specimens, how are you to manage this without picking locks or breaking plate glass? Neglect of opportunities, forsooth! when was there ever, when will there be, an opportunity of handling our Museum minerals? Should a momentary opportunity of handling them occur by an

attendant's neglect, do not seize it on any account, or you yourself will be speedily seized, and much more roughly handled and carefully locked up than even the minerals! Do you reply, Surely the minerals might be handled by students properly recommended?—then you have only to try, and to try the patience of the curator while you patiently pursue your studies and he impatiently quits his own. Nor is handling encouraged at Jermyn Street.

Our only present hope of a popular appreciation of Mineralogy lies on the side of the economical aspects of the science. These, when pleasingly presented and fully illustrated, will win people's attention by their commercial, pecuniary, national and international interests. We therefore look with solicitude to the amount of general attention given to the minerals in the present International Exhibition. It is to be hoped that due notice will be bestowed upon them. How much we, as a nation, owe to our mineral possessions is at least vaguely surmised, though not universally known. The Exhibition now open to the million has many instructive displays of what our Colonies and other nations owe to their mineral possessions, or may yet derive from them. But even these require labelling and explanations.

We are pleased to be able to recommend Mr. Bristow's book, although it is by no means a contribution to popular mineralogical literature. Its title might not facilitate its acceptance, for it is something more than a Glossary though something less than a Manual of Mineralogy. It might, perhaps, be best described as an elementary manual thrown into an alphabetical form. Such a form has the advantage of ready service when collections of minerals are inspected, and saves the necessity of first resorting to the index of a manual. As a compilation from the best formal treatises, it possesses the merit of a clear and concise arrangement of what has been extracted from other books. Thus, it brings into one portable volume much of what the student would have to read for himself in the original works. So far there can be no doubt that those who resolutely resolve to master Mineralogy will find this volume of service to them, and some saving to them also. We had, however, hoped for a more popular book, for the benefit of those who will be deterred, by a glance at the nomenclature of all such books, from beginning to busy themselves with an apparent multitude of unconquerable and unpronounceable words.

Memoirs of the Distinguished Men of Science of Great Britain living in the Years 1807-8.

With an Introduction by Robert Hunt. Compiled and arranged by W. Walker, jun. (Walker & Son.)

Messrs. Walker & Son have published a large engraving of fifty-one distinguished men of science, alive in 1807-8, grouped together in the Library of the Royal Institution. This engraving (which is a beautiful production) is described as designed by Gilbert, drawn by T. F. Skill and W. Walker, engraved by W. Walker and George Zobel. It is accompanied by a book, the Frontispiece of which is a reduced copy of the engraving, for reference.

Our readers may like to know who were the luminaries of the British sky at the time when the Milan Decree threatened to shut us up, and make us (as the phrase is) keep ourselves to ourselves. We shall give the list: but, to augment the interest, we shall write it down in order both of birth and of death:—

1, 1, Boulton; 2, 8, Miller; 3, 17, Dollond; 4, 2, Cavendish; 5, 3, Maskelyne; 6, 4, Mylne; 7, 14, Watt; 8, 9, Bp. Watson; 9, 19, W. Herschel; 10, 10, Huddart; 11, 16, Banks; 12, 21, Cart-

wright; 13, 5, Jessop; 14, 13, Playfair; 15, 7, Bramah; 16, 20, Jenner; 17, 29, Chapman; 18, 15, Rutherford; 19, 6, Rumford; 20, 12, Stanhope; 21, 34, Troughton; 22, 23, Crompton; 23, 38, Murdoch; 24, 27, S. Bentham; 25, 32, Telford; 26, 40, Nasmyth; 27, 18, Rennie; 28, 28, Symington; 29, 45, Hatchett; 30, 30, Leslie; 31, 26, Wollaston; 32, 43, Dalton; 33, 39, Davies Gilbert; 34, 36, Tennant; 35, 49, Donkin; 36, 37, W. Smith; 37, 46, M. Brunel; 38, 42, Allen; 39, 31, Trevithick; 40, 41, Maudslay; 41, 23, Congreve; 42, 48, Thos. Thomson; 43, 24, Young; 44, 50, Rob. Brown; 45, 44, Baily; 46, 11, Howard; 47, 35, Henry; 48, 33, Kater; 49, 47, Frodsham; 50, 25, Davy.

Thus Telford came in the twenty-fifth and went out the thirty-second. The difference of age between the extremes is just half a century: old Boulton was born in 1728, young Davy in 1778. Boulton was the first to die, but half of the list survived Davy. We have omitted one name because the owner is yet living: it is that of Francis Ronalds, who, in 1816, proved the electric telegraph by passing a message through ten miles of wire in his garden at Hammersmith. The editor knows no more of the date of his birth than of that of his death. If Mr. Ronalds, who is said to be living on the Continent, should chance to see this article, and should feel inclined to communicate two or three columns of autobiography, this sentence, as the Queen says, shall be his sufficient warrant.

The selection, of course, partly depends upon the existence of portraits. In one case, that of Joseph Bramah, no such thing is to be found; accordingly, on the principle that a better guess may be made at the hinder part of a man's head than at the front, Bramah is made to turn his back to the spectator. Among those whom we might have seen, we miss Carlisle, Pond, Lax, Brinckley, Woodhouse, Home, Brande, Robertson, Children, &c. Two more persons known to the science of that day are yet alive: Lord Brougham and Benjamin Gompertz were both contributors to the 'Philosophical Transactions' at the date in question. Mr. Gompertz, the discoverer of the remarkable law of human mortality, has recently been the subject of a controversy, in which an appropriator of his ideas, whose friends were unwise enough to set forward the undue claim as a title to election into the Royal Society, has been set in his proper place by the opinion of the profession of actuaries. We also miss the name of Ivory, the first of the English mathematicians at the date; whom Laplace styled the strongest of the English geometers, and one of the strongest in Europe. We should, however, be much surprised to hear that Ivory had allowed a portrait of himself to be taken. We shall add a few words on this distinguished man, for a reason which we shall set forth.

It is customary to suppress from biography—that is, from the biographies written in the day immediately following that of the subjects—all account of peculiarities which it is supposed would be disagreeable to friends and relatives. The consequence is that, after much lapse of time one and another story finds its way into print, which, to those who have not the key, may fix a very unmerited character upon a celebrated name. The way to avoid this untoward conclusion is to speak out, and to tell the whole truth. Nothing is better known among men of science than that Ivory, though an amiable and upright man, and possessed of a high moral courage in scientific matters, was afflicted with the suspicion of conspiracy against himself to a most distressing extent. It is much to his honour that this constant companion never

tempted him to repay supposed injury by any injurious insinuation, or other step of retaliation whatsoever; but the fact is certain. We shall state one instance, out of those which are known to us, of the fear in which he lived. When Baily discovered those papers which led to the account of the treatment of Flamsteed by Newton and others, Ivory, having received the first announcement which was published by the Astronomical Society, called at the apartments of that Society, and expressed to the Assistant Secretary his hope that Mr. Baily was not going to publish matter relating to living persons under the names of Newton and Flamsteed. The officer of the Society reasoned with him, assured him of the genuine character of the publication, and sent him away half comforted. We choose this particular anecdote, which our informant heard from the Assistant Secretary the day after it occurred, because it is not strictly private. Ivory was not a Fellow of the Society, nor an acquaintance of the officer, to whom he paid an official visit, and of whom he asked a formal question.

Mr. Hunt, the editor, has done his biographical work agreeably, but he is hardly up to the scientific part of the matter. We might excuse such a thing as his fancying the copy of the Standard Scale made by the Astronomical Society to be the only record which the fire at the House of Commons left undestroyed. But we solemnly protest against the statement that this copy cost Baily 1,200 hours' watching of the oscillations of a pendulum: it was the repetition of the *Cavendish Experiment* which necessitated this long and weary peeping at the wires, and watching the extent of vibrations. Again, it is truly said of Wollaston, that he "invented the most ingenious methods of determining the properties and constituents of very minute quantities of matter"; but we are sadly let down by the following sentence, in which we are told that "among the delicate instruments he was accustomed to make was a sliding rule of chemical equivalents." We were not aware that this was so delicate an instrument, or the principle of it so peculiar to Wollaston, that it deserved citation as a primary means of establishing his peculiar talent of dealing with the utmost minuteness of quantity.

The following is new:—

"He [Davy] investigated the causes of the rapid decay of copper sheathing on ships, and, attributing this to electro-chemical action, succeeded in preventing it by attaching plates of iron or zinc to the copper. This, however, on being tried practically, was found to introduce a new and unlooked-for evil, viz., excessive fouling of the bottoms of ships so protected."

The old—and true—story is that Davy, knowing the causes of this rapid decay, employed the electro-chemistry of the zinc and copper to correct it; but that the preservation of the copper which ensued introduced, not a new evil, but the old one. The sound copper was not nauseous to the insects, which accordingly settled on it just as they formerly did on the wood.

We have also occasionally to find fault with the style. Men marry "wives" and live with them, for the most part, till the "death" of one or the other: to talk of their "ladies" and their "deceases" is vulgar. We do not feel in a concatenation accordingly when we hear of a man obliged to "take refuge" from "the ebbing of a tide" because he had been "mixed up" in a "speculative mania."

In describing persons who are collected together partly by accident of portraits, it is desirable that distinctions should be occasionally noted. In the year 1807, Smithson Tennant, who is not in the engraving, was a more con-

spicuous chemist than Charles Tennant, who is there. We think we remember another confusion, of which we are reminded by the one which may occur between the two Tennants above noted. We remember, but where it happened we do not remember, that Smithson Tennant was confounded with his contemporary chemist, James Smithson, under the supposition that the first was the same person as the second, with an additional surname tacked on by an inheritance.

It may reasonably be expected that this collection of portraits does not represent the originals as they would have appeared at one given date, in their true proportions of age. But the differences are not staring, though perceptible on close examination; except in one case. Troughton has the trumpet at his ear, which he did not need in 1808: and this appendage calls attention to his face, which is certainly too old. The trumpet should have been omitted.

Ivory being absent, the upper fifty contain no mathematical names of greater account than those of Maskelyne, Playfair and Leslie: able and learned men, but of no pretence to decided original power. The list is a strong illustration of that want of special mathematical study which the separation of English and foreign methods had gradually produced. We do not mean that there was any want of mathematical knowledge ready for application. W. Herschel and Young had all they wanted: Young, in particular, is a splendid specimen of that sagacity which does more with a little than many others with a great deal. This is a power of itself, and of an inventive character. It is clear that Young, as well as W. Herschel, had more than he used. We may also pick out, as men who carried sound knowledge into application, Baily, Brunel, Cavendish, Dalton, Dollond, Gilbert, Kater, Mylne, Rumford, Watt and Wollaston. All allowance made, the want of a mathematical school is conspicuous. Just at the time which this engraving represents, those who were to break down the wall of separation between Britain and the Continent must have been beginning to look forward to their University career, and to imagine themselves gownsmen. Peacock, J. Herschel and Babbage took the first degree in 1813, and immediately applied their energies to the introduction of the Continental mathematics into Cambridge. Then came the strife of the *dotards* and the *doists*, on whose flags were to be seen the Newtonian π and the Leibnitzian dx . These men, of course, could not appear in the engraving: but it is to be regretted that Woodhouse, the precursor of the change, is absent. He had published, in 1803, his 'Principles of Analytical Calculation,' in which, while enforcing attention to the Continental form of mathematics, he had given a searching and sagacious criticism to the principles employed.

This book has mistakes, and some fine writing: especially the Introduction, which is positively atrocious. Thought solicits sunbeams, subdues wild impulses, and the like. This must be kept down: and fortunately fine writers lay themselves open at every turn. "We look," says Mr. Hunt, "at the group of the fifty-one thoughtful men in Mr. Walker's picture—every face [except that of Bramah, who is all back, for reason given] telling its tale of penetrating power—every brow heavy with the intensity of Brain-Force active within it—and we learn to reverence, and to love, those gifted mortals to whom was granted, in answer to their prayerful seeking, the discovery of some one [surely fifty-one, at least] of the members of the disjointed body of Truth." We might look at this group without reverence or love, if

we had none of it ready. We should take it to consist of men of more than average intelligence, in easy circumstances. As to the heavy brain-force, we should judge that the owners, like sensible men, were not laying it on in the Library of the Royal Institution, but were in easy relaxation of mind. And how could it be otherwise, when each picture is the copy of a portrait taken while the subject was chatting with the painter, or with some bystander? But in spite of all this, the lives will interest the casual reader.

MEETING FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.
TCES. Horticultural.—Fruit and Floral Committee.

FINE ARTS

The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus Restored in conformity with the recently-discovered Remains. By J. Fergusson. (Murray.)

THIS book is the result of its author's dissent, expressed in our columns, from the plans proposed for the restoration of the Mausoleum by Mr. Pullan and indorsed by Mr. Newton in his book on the discoveries at Halicarnassus. Mr. Fergusson has mastered his subject with a vigour which enables him to treat it with much greater force and vividness than were displayed by his antagonists, although they derived their inspiration on the site of the ruins, while he deals only with the transported fragments and somewhat imperfect accounts of their discovery.

Mr. Fergusson recapitulates and explains the data so furnished, and shows how they may explain the mystery that has so long puzzled students of antiquity. Until recently all we knew about one of the seven marvels of the ancient world was that the ancients regarded it as the finest work of architecture they possessed. But for this the popular antique testimony respecting it would not have induced the moderns to rank the Mausoleum very nobly. The ancient writers who record their admiration of it have small claim to the high places of criticism, and Pliny, at least, did not probably understand the building he described. The ancients, however, pitched upon this as their *chef-d'œuvre* in architecture. The others of the wonderful seven works which can rank with it—i. e., the Pyramids, and the Walls, or Gardens, at Babylon—were rather great engineering triumphs than works of Art. The Temple at Ephesus was admired for its size, as the largest of Greek temples. But the Mausoleum, which covered not one-fifth or one-seventh of the area of the last, could have been remarkable only because it was beautiful in Art, or in consequence of the elaboration and taste displayed in its ornamentation.

A problem with many generations has been how to restore this magnificent work, and innumerable attempts have been made to that end. Few great architects have failed to make the experiment, and some odd things, presumed to be like it, have even been perpetrated in substantial stone,—the steeple of St. George's, Bloomsbury, to witness. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, in 1842, obtained a firman to remove certain carvings that the Knights of St. John had inserted in the walls of the Castle of St. Peter at Budrum. These were declared to be fragments of the work of Artemisia's sculptors, Scopas, Bryaxis, Timotheus and Leochares. Mr. Newton, in 1855, made complete excavations on the site of the city of Halicarnassus, and to the singular honour of Prof. Donaldson, who had indicated a certain spot where such would be the case, hit upon the Mausoleum itself. Lieut. Smith, who accompanied Mr. Newton's expedition, made, upon the spot, such a restora-

tion of the building as appeared to him probable from the remains found. This restoration is to be preferred on many points to the more elaborate design of Mr. Pullan, since published.

Mr. Pullan was commissioned by the Trustees of the British Museum to join the expedition, as architect, and arrived some time after its labours had begun. Many sculptures were sorted out, to be sent to England, and masses of marble must have been shifted from spots which might have indicated their original positions. We must bear this in mind in order to see that Mr. Pullan enjoyed but slight advantages over Mr. Fergusson, who had given his attention for some years to the subject.

So prepared, Mr. Fergusson enters upon the question in a systematic manner, and develops his arguments so logically, clearly, and with such acumen, that the result before us is a model book of its class, while most readers will accept the writer's opinions as conclusive, and his design for as perfect a restoration of the Mausoleum as is likely to be obtained. The author divides his materials into four parts:—1. The written descriptions in ancient books. 2. Remains of the building recently discovered, and measurements of the ground. 3. Information obtainable by comparison of several tombs existing in Asia and Africa. 4. The system of definite proportions in Greek architecture, useful in suggesting forms, and most valuable in rectifying deductions arrived at from other sources.

Written materials for the history of the Mausoleum's structure are scanty; most important is the account by Pliny, who stated the dimensions of the building in such a slipshod manner as to have produced an unending puzzle for his readers. He says, it extended from north to south 63 feet, but was shorter on the other fronts (i. e., its plan was oblong); its whole circumference was 411 feet; it was raised in height 25 cubits, and surrounded by thirty-six columns: this part was called the *pteron*; above the *pteron* was a pyramid equal in height to the lower part, with twenty-four steps,—contracting into a summit, like that of a *meta* (cone, or, strictly, goal at the turning point of a racecourse). It is obvious from this, that Pliny did not understand the building he described; for how could a building only 63 feet long in plan, and shorter on the other sides, be 411 feet in circumference? The last measurement evidently applies to another portion than the first, and what part was that spoken of as "*inferiorem*"? If it were the *pteron* or body of the edifice surrounded by columns, which itself presumably stood upon a base or podium, we get something like the modern idea of the whole,—namely, a base sustaining a peristyle of columns inclosing a cella or body, the whole surmounted by a pyramid, upon which was placed the statue of the King of Caria. Pliny adds, that the height of the whole work was equal to 140 feet. The leading points in dispute between Messrs. Pullan, Fergusson and others are as to the appropriation of this 140 feet;—if a portion thereof, as this book suggests, ought or not to be taken from the podium or base and added to the pyramid above, to form a pedestal for the chariot group,—how the columniation should be managed round the cella, and a few minor matters.

The remains of the Mausoleum upon which Mr. Fergusson bases his restoration are, primarily, some thirty or forty blocks which formed part of the steps of the pyramid: these showed, with two exceptions, by the weather-marks on their upper surfaces, that they had been constructed of two breadths only. Some angle stones were found, coming from the same situa-

tion. Portions of the *cymatium*, or crowning member of the entablature surmounting the columns, were also found, from which the author gets, with almost absolute certainty, the width of the intercolumniations,—a most important step towards a restoration. Portions of columns, of the architrave and cornice,—enough in all to get a satisfactory restoration of the "order," as it is styled,—exist.

Among the examples upon which Mr. Fergusson rests his restoration is that of the so-called Lion Tomb at Cnidus, which seems to have suggested to him the key of the ancient mystery he here presents to us,—i. e., the pedestal for the chariot group, whose height had to be taken out of that of the basement, very much to the improvement of the building's appearance, and with great probability, seeing that the group could be seen from below at a much less distance if so situated, than if it stood directly on the truncated apex of the pyramid, according to Mr. Pullan and others. It is worthy of note that this tomb from the neighbourhood of Halicarnassus would, not unlikely, be copied from the Mausoleum in some of its features, and thus may reflect light for us upon its original.

With regard to the application of the *Rationes* or system of definite proportions in Greek architecture, we must only say that our author deals with them so successfully as to insure converts. It is to be understood that "by the application of the formula of simple ratios, we are enabled to fix the dimension of nearly every part of the Mausoleum with almost absolute certainty; and, at the same time, it is found that the Mausoleum is one of the most complete and interesting examples of a building designed wholly on a scheme of simple definite ratios. Thus, the very science which assists materially in solving the problem is, at the same time, illustrated and confirmed by the discoveries it aids in making." As this important and interesting subject has been little studied,—indeed, its full development by the discoverer remains unpublished,—we will let Mr. Fergusson speak upon it. Although it was long suspected that the Greeks had some principles of this character, the question was not elucidated until Messrs. Penrose and Cockerell elaborately surveyed the remains at Athens, Bassæ and Egina. The former made the first steps towards the discovery, when Mr. Watkiss Lloyd

"undertook the investigation, and by a long and careful series of comparisons, he has proved that the time-honoured doctrine of the Vitruvian school—that the lower diameter of a column was the modulus of every other part of a building—had no place in Greek Art; on the contrary, that every part of a Greek building was proportioned to those parts in juxtaposition or analogy to it, in some such ratio as 3 to 4, 4 to 5, 5 to 6, and so on—not by accident, but by careful study; and the whole design was evolved from a nexus of proportions as ingenious in themselves as they were harmonious in their result. In the Parthenon, for instance, he found that the entire building is set out with the minutest accuracy by the application of a few ratios, which involve no higher number than 10, and in no case have a higher difference between them than 5. The greatest ingenuity and refinement were exercised in embracing the entire design in a net-work of proportional relations, in such a way that every division had a special dependence upon some other that was particularly connected or contrasted with it; and, at the same time, every member was implicated in more than one such comparison by what might seem happy accident, were it not that on trial it is proved how much study is required to effect such a result. At the same time, when the clue is once gained, it is easy to see how study was competent to effect it."

It is not possible for us to enter into the

application of these singular laws to the example in hand. Suffice it that, in the matter of the Cymatium arrangement alone, important as that is, the application is singularly exact, and opens towards the result with great happiness. With regard to the disposition of the columns of the *pteron*, Mr. Fergusson will find many staunch opponents to his suggestion that the angle ones were coupled, "or, in other words, half an intercolumniation (5 feet 3 inches) apart from centre to centre." This, however, has the authority of the Lion Tomb at Cnidus for countenance. It must be admitted, moreover, that here the system of ratios steps in with great serviceableness, and that good arguments are shown for adopting such a peculiarity of construction. It is here worth while to remark that two-thirds of the cost of Mr. Newton's book is due to the hugeness of the plates, which are, as we pointed out, unreasonably bulky. It appears from Mr. Fergusson's statement that they are inexact where they should be most perfect—i.e., in attention to scales of measurement, a thing we suspected, and are rendered clumsy for use by adoption of a decimal scale, which nobody employs in practice. On other points, also, great want of care is observable in this work.

It remains now to give some account of the building as Mr. Fergusson has restored it: doing this we recognize the greatly superior beauty of his work over that of any other restoration with which we are acquainted, notwithstanding that Messrs. Cockerell, Texier, Lloyd and Falkener have essayed it. The ground-plan of all is oblong, according to Pliny's measurement. Mr. Fergusson raises his edifice from the ground on three steps; above these a basement of rusticated stonework goes all round the building; upon it are ranged rectangular piers with capitals that sustain an entablature, with its frieze, cornice, &c. Before the basement and in advance of each of the piers is a pedestal; upon each pedestal appears a lion-statue; those at the angles are much larger than their companions. These greater pedestals, the writer very ingeniously suggests, might have been the original positions for the famous Monte Cavallo groups of men and horses now at Rome. It must be admitted that the arrangement of these groups is very peculiar, eminently fitting them for a situation at the corner of a building, if we conceive the men separated from the horses, but holding them by long bridles, as might well be. They are of the age of the Mausoleum, as their style indicates; their original situation is unknown. We know, says the writer, that Cicero accused Verres of plundering Halicarnassus of its statues, and why not of these? If so, they might have filled such angle-pedestals at the Mausoleum's base, and two other groups have been lost. Our objection is, that these groups are too large to consort with the fragments of statues belonging to the Mausoleum, and, unless the proposed pedestals were of much less height than Mr. Fergusson's drawing shows, they would hide too much of the wall and mar the angle of the building altogether. The spaces between the piers above mentioned are filled with statues by the author: an incomparably better arrangement than that of Mr. Pullan, who placed them in a similar situation in the peristyle of columns above instead of in the peristyle of piers below. Thus, then, consists the podium or base of the edifice—three steps, the basement, its square piers with their advanced pedestals bearing lions in front of it; the entablature, an element of which is one of the friezes now in the British Museum; and a cornice sustaining three steps again,

above all. The total height of this podium was 51 feet 6 inches.

Raised upon the last-mentioned steps comes the "order," which is appropriated to the second frieze, and the cymatium of lions' heads and honeysuckle ornaments as existing; the height of this, the *pteron*, is 37 feet 6 inches. In arranging the columns of the peristyle, Mr. Fergusson adopts the plan of showing three at each angle, those nearest to the corners being at half the intercolumnar space which divides those on the sides. This disposition is original and effective. On each of the longer sides of the cella so inclosed are placed four windows, as above mentioned. At the top of the cella appears the third and smaller frieze, of which we possess fragments. From above the cymatium or crown of the order rises the pyramid of steps. At each of its angles Mr. Fergusson places a couchant lion upon a bold pedestal. At the pyramid's apex rises the largest pedestal destined to support the quadriga, which last nobly crowns the whole. The pyramid being 37 feet 6 inches, and the statue-group 14 feet, we get a total height, with the dimensions before given, of 140 feet 6 inches, which, as our author shows, agrees sufficiently, not only with the recorded measurements, but with the ratios known to rule Greek architecture and the remains as they exist.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—There is much talk of reforming the Royal Academy, and making some use of its numerous privileges and facilities. Amongst those things most urgently demanded will be that, by some means or other, the institution shall become truly the representation of English Art, and that men who are really distinguished in any branch of their profession, either as painters, sculptors or architects, shall no longer be absent from its ranks. Men ask themselves, how it happens that Mr. Holman Hunt had to submit to the indignity of getting but one vote out of forty when he put his name down as a candidate for an Associateship? Others ask why is not Mr. W. Hunt, after a long life in Art, devoted to its most admirable technical manifestation, an R.A.? It is demanded again, why is not Mr. F. Leighton, whose name has been on the books some years past, not elected? Mr. Anthony is one of our few poetical landscape-painters who have commensurate skill to make them worthy of the honour, and yet he remains unhonoured. The Royal Academy dishonours itself by the exclusion of such men as these. To these names might be added, as having equal claim to the dignity bestowable by the Society, those of Mr. Linnell, Mr. J. Clark, Mr. G. F. Watts, Mr. S. Palmer, Mr. G. E. Street, and many more, not one of whom are to be found in the Royal Academy, whose absence renders its distinctions invalid, and who, with but one exception, have received some slight or neglect from the body when, at one period or other, they have advanced, as the rules demand, their claims. The gentlemen designated are representatives of all schools of opinion, the merits of every one of them are beyond dispute, yet we are able to name at once ten men, mere examples, who from some reason or other are not on the Royal Academy roll. Well may people ask the meaning of all this, and others carry the investigation still further by challenging the names of many who hold places which others ought to fill.

Messrs. Morris, Marshall and Falkener, of Red Lion Square, have executed a memorial window for the south transept of Peterborough Cathedral, to the memory of Sir Chapman Marshall, late of London. It comprises two lights in chief, containing subjects of 'Abraham's Sacrifice' and 'Joseph cast into the Pit.' In the minor lights are figures of the Patriarchs, surmounted by the head of the Saviour.

The old Scottish humour comes out in these times with something of its ancient form. Only the other day we were all horrified by an account of the fall of a very tall house in High Street,

Edinburgh, and loss of several lives. A memorial has just been erected of the circumstance; and with singular character, this comprises a sculptured head of a boy, with the words, "Heave awa', chaps, I'm no' deid yet," inscribed about it; the whole inclosed in foliage, and placed by way of keystone above the arch leading down to Paisley's Close. We are not always so felicitous in getting characteristic humour as well as a memorial of fortitude out of our troubles of this nature. Yet the old sculptors, as more than one of our towns and cities show, were not so oblivious. The ancient towns of North-West Germany can produce not a few records of like nature. We do not lack examples of "pluck," goodness knows,—our firemen and policemen have no few claims on our municipal gratitude in that respect. Not many years ago a sailor died, like an Englishman of old, in China because he would not kneel to some mandarin. This act was in the bold spirit of our race, and men were glad to acknowledge the fact; still not even a slight carving on some apt spot,—such exist in Portsmouth, Chatham, Plymouth, Southampton and elsewhere,—has been placed to record the courage of the man.

A stained-glass window has been placed in Isip Church, Oxon, by their children, to the memory of the late Dean Buckland and his lady. It has three lights, with tracery and a sexfoil above. The subjects of the glass are, the Annunciation, *Noli me Tangere*, and Crucifixion, in the central light; in the sex-foil, the Ascension; in the minor parts, the Pelican, Lamb, and other Christian emblems.

Our French neighbours, who do not seem inclined to rest upon their work of "restoration," have again taken Notre Dame de Paris in hand, and commenced extensive labours there.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, Covent Garden, under the management of Miss Louisa Pyne and Mr. W. Harrison, Sole Lessees, WILL OPEN the SEVENTH OPERATIC SEASON on MONDAY NEXT, August 25. During the week the following eminent Artists will appear:—Miss Louisa Pyne, Miss Thirlwall, Madame Laura Puxter, Miss Sue in Pyne and Mlle. Parepa; Messrs. Santley, A. St. Aubyn, Charles Lyall, Henry Corri, J. G. Pater, George Perren, Aynley Cook, John Rouse, W. H. Weiss and W. Harrison. Conductor, Mr. Alfred Mellon.—On Monday, August 25, Thursday 28 and Saturday 30, Beneficent's highly-successful Romantic Opera, in Three Acts, entitled THE LILY OF KILMARKEY. The Libretto by J. Oxenford and Dion Boucicault. The Music by Mr. J. Benedict. After the Opera on Monday Evening only, "God Save the Queen" will be sung by the Company. On Tuesday, August 26, and Friday, 29, Balfe's Popular Opera, in Three Acts, entitled THE ROSE OF CASTILLE. The Music by Mr. W. Balfe. On Wednesday, August 27, Meyerbeer's Romantic Opera, in Three Acts, entitled DINORAH.—Doors open at Half-past Seven; commence at Eight. Private Boxes, from 10s. 6d. to 4s. 4d.; Orchestra Stalls, 10s.; Dress Circle, 6s.; Upper Box, 4s.; Pit, 2s. 6d.; Amphitheatre Stalls, 3s.; Amphitheatre, 1s.—The Box-Office open daily from Ten to Five, under the direction of Mr. J. Parsons. No charge for Booking or Fees to Box-keepers. No restriction to Full Evening Dress.

NEW PUBLICATIONS. VOCAL MUSIC.

BOOKS of chants, psalms and hymns seem never to fall short. In Mr. Spark's collection, entitled *Sacred Harmony* (Addison, Hollier & Co.), the tunes are given without words, so that the melodies can be adapted to suit customers of all creeds.—*The Canticles, pointed for Chanting, and with appropriate Chants selected*, by W. Walsham How (Morgan), are another exercise, made by a Rural Dean.—It is enough to name *One Hundred and Eight Chants, Ancient and Modern, arranged for Four Voices*, by William Shelmardine (Hall, Virtue & Co.).—Mr. Goss, who composes too sparingly, publishes an impressive and expressive anthem, *The Wilderness* (Novello & Co.). This is well written throughout, without the dryness which would be men of science have too often mistaken for depth.—*Tunes for Psalms and Hymns*, edited by John Hullah (Parker & Co.), include a good number of German psalm tunes. These do not naturally take root here.—A new edition of *The Psalmist*, &c., by Vincent Novello (Haddon), requires no recommendation.—Here may be announced another *Morning Service, for Four Voices*, by E. Reynolds (Cocks & Co.),—a *Te Deum*, by Arthur Crump, for soli and chorus (Ollivier), which rises above the average of sacred manufacture,—"*Is there no balm in Gilead?*" (same composer and publishers),—a number or two of *Israel in the Wilderness*, an Oratorio, by Dr. Dearnley (no publisher's

name).—*a Laudate*, by M. Félicien David (Copley & Co.), written in the most dashing Catholic style, which yet does not make us forget a 'Laudate' by Zingarelli, sung by Donzelli with such lustre of voice, still less undervalue Cherubini's brilliant 'Laudate,' from his Mass in c major, which has been waiting since it was written for Madame Lind-Goldschmidt to sing it.—*A Magnificat*, by M. D'Aubel (Lebeau), is a singular compound of gravity and frivolity. The interludes are about as much out of the true organ style as they could possibly be.—M. Randegger's *Funeral Anthem* (Boosey & Sons), composed on the occasion of our late national loss, is solemn and thoughtful, if not rich in new ideas.—"When shall we pray?" (Leader & Cocks) is by Mr. Handel Gear.—"Fear thou not," by Lady Emma Talbot (Novello & Co.), is one of the essays which, were amateurs wiser than they are apt to be, they had better keep to the privacy of the home-pianoforte.

The Music-Master, by James Mackintosh (Wertheim & Co.), is a three-penny publication, with "improvements on the Sol-fa system," and some examples, most questionable in point of taste—sacred words (merely to cite one) being jauntily set to 'Robin Adair.'—*The Pianoforte Edition of Songs and Tunes for Education*, by Messrs. Curwen and Turtel (Ward & Co.), is a neat book.—Mr. Murby adds to the long list of books which are hardly wanted *The Musical Student's Manual, Division I. Relating to Sound* (Groombridge & Sons), and endeavours to be facetious and familiar in an eighteen-penny collection of *Rhymes, Jingles and Songs* (Longman & Co.).

There have been several new Part-songs, single and collected, since we wrote on the matter. Here are four by Mr. Hallett Sheppard, Op. 13 (Novello): three written to good words, by real poets, old and new—as Longfellow, Herrick and Scott; and once again proving (were proof once again wanted) that sense is easier to set than nonsense. Mr. Sheppard manages his part-writing with a fair amount of ease.—*Spring, for Four Voices*, by W. H. Nichols (Novello), is more tormented. Its writer has clearly approached his task with fancies of instrumental effect. This is from the wrong side.—"I saw the Moon rise clear," by F. C. Atkinson (Jewel), is not good. The inner parts are clumsily written.—Some compositions by M. Noverari (Augener & Co.) are here, also: among them, a funeral Choral (why cannot people, when they write for England, use English titles?)—otherwise, Psalm-tune,—a setting of the Bugle-Song from Mr. Tennyson's 'Princess,' and of the same poet's 'Lullaby' (already set to its best advantage by one of the best amateurs who has ever made music in England, Mrs. Tom Taylor). None of M. Noverari's compositions have any remarkable value.—"Would you gain a maiden's heart?" *Madrigal*, by Robert Sloman (Addison & Co.), is but one more item of respectable writing added to the mass of mediocre productions.—So is *Corydon's Doleful Knell* (Cocks), by Mr. M. Murdie, a round for three equal voices, which has no melody in it.

Little can be done with single Songs beyond mere enumeration of titles.—Mr. W. Vipond Barry's *Vocal Compositions* (published for the author) are neither honestly English nor heartily German.—*Six Songs*, by Walter Macfarren (Cocks & Co.), are better, though the composer has not always chosen his text with reference to music.—"Britannia is the freeman's home" is a rather vulgar tune by Herr Kucken, with chorus ad libitum, aimed at our Volunteers.—"Why sitst thou by that ruined hall?" is by Miss M. Lindsay.—Capt. Lincoln Cocks has re-set *The Rosebud*, by Burns (Cocks & Co.).—W. Hutchinson, Esq. has not been very fortunate in "Twos evening in the summer time," and "Oh, wake those tones no more on me!" (Hale).—*Sweet-heart, come back to me* (Cramer & Co.) is Mr. Balf's last ballad. The words are by Miss Jessica Rankin.—"To the Queen of my heart" (Addison & Co.) is an elegant story, in the barcarole tempo, by one who is rarely elegant, Mr. Schulthes.—"O, doubting heart," by J. Hallett Sheppard (Augener & Co.), is a second setting of one of Miss Adelaide Procter's songs, which was better set, and for good and all, by Mr. Hullah.—*The Mariner's Dream*, a descriptive song, and *The Dying Soldier*, by J. J.

Haite, belong to the family of "sensation ditties." So (from an opposite point of the compass) does *Spirit Rapping*, by Mr. J. L. Hatton (same publishers).—"I'll tell you why I'd like to be a rose," by Henry Smart (Cramer & Co.), is a song of far more elegant quality, as music.—*The Hebrew Mother*, sonorous words by Mrs. Hemans, set by Henry Hiles (Ashdown & Parry).—"At her window, ho!" by Claribel,—"O, those fleeting thoughts," by Madame Sainton-Dolby (Lonsdale); several songs composed for Miss Catherine Hayes, by Miss Gabriel and Mr. Howard Glover, and already mentioned (same publishers).—"O, Peaceful Lake," by Bianchi Taylor,—"The Yellow Rose of Texas," by J. K., arranged by Gerald Stanley—a comic song, in which the comicality is hard to find.—"Pretty Rosebud," and "I do not believe," by Julius Seligmann.—"The Wild Rose of the Valley," words and music by Frank Romer (the last from Cramer & Co.).—"Oh, name him not!" by Noel Brooke Robinson (Pigott), are sufficiently described by copying their titles.

Here is an odd thing—"The Swan's Melody," (Davidson & Co.), set by George Russell. The words, we happen to know, were thirty years ago thrown off as an impromptu by a Quaker lady, who nurtured within herself a holy horror of music, being innocent of the slightest capacity for its enjoyment. And yet her mind was musical in no common degree, as these words attest. Mr. Russell has set them with some elegance.—Here, too, is something rare and beautiful, "Le Point du Jour," by Frederic Clay (Chappell & Co.), a French song, written in the real, relishing, *ragout*, French style, by a remarkable English amateur. The romance is excellent.—*The Fairies' Farewell to the Flowers*,—"Sympathy" (one Haydn set a "Sympathy" to Mrs. John Hunter's words, by that careful professor, M. Emanuel Aguilar (Davison & Co.).—"In Paradiso," by Henry Hiles (Ashdown & Parry), close the list of songs by English composers. It is not, as here made out, a very rich one. In point of merit, Mr. Clay heads it.

Our folk are used to be captious and critical, in regard to Southern melodies. "Rot your Italianos," said Goldsmith's tavern-guest; "give me a simple ballad!" Yet "your Italianos" give us tunes, even unto this day, though they may give great singers no more. Here is Signor Marchesi's "Addio Vienna, Album di Canti Siciliani" (Schott), in which there is mother-invention if not mother-wit. Every tune is pleasant to sing.—"La Pochinella" is by L. Radia.—The "Foglie Disperse," a new edition of known Italian melodies, duets, &c., by A. Vianesi (Lonsdale & Co.), are welcome. It includes Blangini's *Naturno*, "Care pupille," one of those two-part *Naturni* only since approached in vocal grace by Gabussi's chamber-duets. But Blangini was the first man, and his works will last, we apprehend.

Incidental mention has been already made of the collection of *Welsh Melodies with Welsh and English Poetry*, by John Thomas (Addison & Co.). To the interest of this music we need not draw attention, nor to the fact that the editor has done his work well. Whether translating the original poetry has been the wisest course to be pursued may be questioned. That in many cases an air can be successfully fitted with words, not representing the original text, is a fact as clear as the existence of 'The Last Rose of Summer,' and 'Scots wha hae.' But the Welsh are a punctilious people, and prefer the quaint old words of some semi-cultivated Bard, with a name unpronounceable save by Cambro-Britons, to the rarest inspirations thrown off by a Burns, a Moore or a Hemans. They lose, we cannot but think, by this pertinacity;—national characteristic though it be, as old as the days of the *Mabinogion*.

HAYMARKET.—The farce of 'Fish out of Water' has now been selected by Mr. Buckstone to usher in his Hundreary comedy. Though the latter retains its place, and has retained it for more than two hundred nights, the custom of the manager has been to impart a partial air of novelty to his bill by varying the title of the initial drama. On the present occasion he has gone beyond that concession to popular expectation, and actually provided a new ballet, composed by Señor Moragas,

and called 'Celo e Celas; or, Love and Jealousy.' In portraying these well-worn affections of the mind, the Señor, with the Señora Perea Nena, executes some difficult movements, but all highly illustrative of the theme, and equally full of beauty and force. Miss Fanny Wright and the *corps de ballet* not only aided the various tableaux which marked the culminating points of the story, but gave much valuable assistance to the principals, relieving them at intervals with *pas* of great grace and vigour.

DRURY LANE.—A change has taken place in the cast of 'The Colleen Bawn.' Mrs. Jordan, the American actress, now sustains the part of *Anne Chute*, instead of Miss Jessie M'Lean, and throws into it that degree of animation which the character properly requires. The alteration is, we think, for the better. The performances continue to be patronized by the public with singular persistency. The Irish drama, now nearing its four-hundredth night, appears to have secured a new lease of popularity.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—The two new theatres for the Cirque and the Théâtre Lyrique in the Place du Châtelet, Paris, are now completed, and report pronounces them spacious and convenient. New inventions in lighting, ventilation, and management of the machinery behind the scenes are said to have been successfully introduced. The new Théâtre Lyrique is not to open until the middle of September, and then to open with M. Grisar's 'Chatte Merveilleuse.' The 'Ondine' of MM. Lockroy and Semet is to follow; and after that, an 'Ivan the Fourth,' by M. Bryon d'Orgeval. Is this founded on the same story as M. Gounod's 'Ivan le Terrible' which opera, it has been said, cannot see the light under present provisions of censorship.—The correspondent of the *Morning Post* is not complimentary as regards the architectural appearance of the interior of the Cirque.—The new theatre at Baden-Baden is, by universal testimony, described as very elegant. It was inaugurated (we may here say) by Conradin Kreutzer's sickly 'Nachtlager,' sung by a good German company, and by a bombastic French prologue, due to the muse (let the critic for once copy the poet) of M. Méry.—The building of the new Court Theatre at Vienna does not appear to proceed rapidly. Where are the composers?

We announce, by request, that Mr. Henry F. Chorley will deliver the course of lectures 'On National Music' read by him this spring at the Royal Institution, in Birmingham and Manchester, during the latter part of October and the beginning of November.

Signor Giuglini's *Cantata 'Italia'* came off, as announced, this day week—Mdle. Titiens taking the principal part. It was received as rapturously as Signor Verdi's *Cantica* before it.

Calais—which enjoys a dreary pre-eminence among sea landing-places—is hardly the town of towns in which one could fancy a new opera coming to light. Yet we are told in the *Figaro* programme of a one-act trifle, 'La Chanson de Lanjon,' which has been produced here, and is described as thoroughly pretty, both words and music.

'La Serva Padrona' (Pergolesi's or Paisiello's?) we ask, recollecting a mistake made by us when the *operetta* was here produced for Mdle. Piccolomini has just been revived at the Opéra Comique of Paris. "They say" that Madame Galli-Marie is delightful as the heroine.

It is said, in the *Gazette Musicale*, that Signor Verdi's coming opera, 'La Forza del Destino,' is to be simultaneously represented at Madrid, St. Petersburg and Rome.

MISCELLANEA

Lich-Gates.—Lich-gates and resting-stones for the corpse are not of very common occurrence in England. To name two of the former will interest antiquaries. These exist at Trelech and Llandogo, near Monmouth. They are of the simplest form, yet almost as picturesque as that at Beckenham, Kent, consisting of a tiled hood or roof, supported by wooden pillars. Placed above one at Bray,

Berks, are two chambers, now inhabited by the sexton; at Barking is a single chamber so placed. There are three stone lich-gates to the churchyard of Troutbeck, Westmoreland. In the centre of the first-named churchyard, on the south side, is the *lich-stone*, or resting-place for coffins. It is an oblong slab, of great size and weight, resting on four short piers of stone, which another slab sustains. In accordance with the custom which led to their use, these *lich-stones* were at a low level—barely three feet above the ground; so that the bearers of the dead, whose white bearing-scarves passed through the handles beneath the coffin, whereby it was slung, instead of borne upon the shoulders of men, as now, could easily deposit it on the slab. Of the same nature, a still greater rarity exists on Penalt Common, Monmouth, being a lich-stone far removed from any church. This is under an oak-tree. The custom of old here was to chant a psalm while the bearers rested their load upon the stone. Fixed against the eastern external wall of Trelech Church will be found a remarkable effigy of a knight, clad in mail, with a long tunic of silk or linen, a long kite-shaped shield over his left shoulder; a cross-hilted sword upon his lap, grasped by his right hand, while his left sustains a chalice. It would be desirable to place this effigy in the interior, its original situation. A curious sun-dial will be found in the same village, dated 1638: upon its base is sculptured a quaint representation of a well—such a one, highly chalybeate in character, being one of the sights of the village, and is in itself interesting, as showing precisely the arrangements of the old wonder-working fountains, being fronted by a low stone bench on each side, semicircularly disposed, an opening being in front between the horns. A little arch, of Decorated character, shelters the spring. The other carvings on the sun-dial's base represent three upright stones named after Harold, the remains of five, and a tall tumulus, all still existing, the latter ascended by a spiral path, at the top of which is an inscribed stone, now buried in the sward, but evidently built upon a strong base of hewn stone. It is striking to find, in an obscure place such as this, a record of its "curiosities" placed there in the seventeenth century. The carving of the well is so utterly at variance with the thing itself, as to afford a hint to those who trust to old representations of still older works, that their joy may be uncalled-for, when, as has once or twice happened, the cry has been that views of the Temple at Jerusalem have been found.

Discoveries at Athens.—The excavations at Athens of archaeological treasures in the course of last winter, especially that of the Theatre of Dionysius, conducted by the Berlin Professors Strack and Büttcher, are to be continued by the Archaeological Society at Athens. But as these excavations promise to acquire large dimensions, and as neither the means of the Society nor of Government are in the least adequate for the undertaking, the plan of a lottery, which is to furnish the necessary funds, has been devised, and is in progress now. With the permission of Government, a Commission has been formed, which receives contributions, whereby to continue the excavations, and protect those already brought to light from the inclemency of the weather, to which they mostly have been exposed till now. The Commission may raise a capital of 1,200,000 francs, three-fourths of which sum is to be expended on the excavations, and one-fourth on the lottery. The contributions will be deposited in the Greek National Bank, and an account delivered yearly. The whole of the undertaking is under the direct patronage of the Queen.

The Deaf and Dumb.—The omission of a decimal point, in two places, in the statistics of the deaf and dumb, in the Miscellaneous of last week's *Athenæum*, must be corrected. There are not 31 deaf and dumb in 10,000 Catholics, but 3.1, that is, three and one-tenth; not 23 deaf and dumb in 10,000 whites in the State of Iowa (U.S.), but 2.3—two and three-tenths.

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